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Improving the Effectiveness of In-Service Education for Headteachers of Government Secondary Schools in Harare Region, Zimbabwe

by

© Rodgers Garikayi Sisimayi

A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Education

Department of Educational Administration

Edmonton, Alberta

Fall 1994

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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research for acceptance, a thesis entitled "Improving the Effectiveness of In-Service Education for Headteachers of Government Secondary Schools in Harare Region, Zimbabwe" submitted by Rodgers Garikayi Sisimayi in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education.

K Lee Ward
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Date: AUGUST 10, 1994

Abstract

The purpose of this survey research was to investigate what needs to be done to improve the effectiveness of in-service courses for headteachers of government secondary schools in Harare Region, Zimbabwe.

A literature review was undertaken, and the ideas garnered were used to develop the questionnaire. Two parts comprised the questionnaire: Part I dealt with the headteachers' personal data such as their qualifications, status, gender, age, and situational characteristics. Part II focused on the in-service courses that the headteachers had attended. The greater part of Part II was taken up by task statements which reflected the tasks that headteachers perform. The task statements covered the following areas of the headteachers' responsibility: curriculum and instruction, staff personnel function, pupil personnel function, resource management, systemwide policies and operations, and school-community interface. Headteachers rated the importance of each task as reflected in the task statement and their ability to perform the task on a Likert-type scale of 1 (low) to 5 (high). On the basis of the headteachers' ratings, the task statements were distributed among the four quadrants of the Quadrant Assessment Model (QAM).

After pilot-testing the questionnaire among educators from Zimbabwe who were pursuing further studies in Canada, the questionnaire was administered to 51 headteachers, and the response rate was 98%. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze and interpret the data, and the QAM was utilized to determine the in-service needs of the participants.

In order to improve the effectiveness of the in-service courses for headteachers, the participants suggested (a) greater collaboration between the in-service leaders and the headteachers in planning and designing the in-service courses, (b) the hiring of competent and credible facilitators, (c) the use of appropriate technologies for

in-service delivery, (d) the formulation and institutionalization of a system of rewards and incentives for those who partake in in-service activities, (e) the designing of in-service courses that are developmental and long range, (f) the utilization of suggestions made during course evaluation, and (g) the substantive appointment of acting headteachers.

The conclusion to be drawn from the above suggestions is that for in-service education courses to be effective, there is need for greater collaboration between the consumers and providers of in-service education.

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Chapter 1

Introduction and Background to the Study

The advent of independence in Zimbabwe in 1980 witnessed an unprecedented expansion of secondary education as the Government strove to democratize access to education. The number of secondary schools nationally rose from 177 in 1979 to 1,502 in 1989. This phenomenal expansion strained the capacity of the system to deliver effective education. There were several reasons for this development.

First, as teacher-training colleges could not produce trained teachers in sufficient numbers to meet the new demand, a large number of 'O'-level graduates with no preservice training or any teaching experience joined the teaching profession as temporary teachers. Their grasp of both content and teaching methods was at best suspect. Secondly, and more importantly, young and inexperienced teachers were appointed to headship positions without any preservice training or exposure to well-planned induction programs. Their appointment as headteachers was based on their proven track record as classroom practitioners. Headship was thus seen as an extension of classroom practice. The underlying assumption was that if one had been a good teacher, one ought to be a good school administrator. Furthermore, the newly appointed headteachers were expected to acquire their skills of management and administration through hands-on experience. In addition, it was believed that experience as a deputy headteacher was adequate apprenticeship. However, as Lipham, Rankin, and Hoeh (1985) observed, "A good teacher or even a good assistant principal may not make an effective principal" (p. 70). Moreover, according to Kelly (1987), deputy headteachers spend most of their time at tasks that they will not perform as headteachers. The situation was further compounded by the inadequacy of the professional support given by the regional office educational personnel because of the sheer numbers of headteachers involved, resource constraints, and other insurmountable logistical problems.

Because of the lack of preservice training, inexperience, and the inadequacy of supervision by education officers from the regional office, the newly appointed headteachers, who were in the majority, were overwhelmed by the daunting tasks that they were expected to perform. It was therefore not surprising that from about the mid-1980s problems began to surface: Reports compiled by education officers revealed that essential records such as enrollments, which are very critical for effective planning and resource allocation, were not being properly kept; the supervision of teachers was infrequent and sporadic; and the net result was a noticeable decline in the quality of school achievements. The Secretary's annual report (1985) stated that the Ministry of Education and Culture was "not satisfied with the pass rate and is making determined efforts to improve it" (p. 1). Even the World Bank (1990) acknowledged that there had been "a drop from 1983-84 in the proportion of candidates obtaining at least five passes of grade C or better" (p. 25) in the 'O'-level examinations. Furthermore, school discipline appeared to have become lax: The Secretary's annual report cited "instances of student strikes in a number of schools; the main reasons were either a weakness in school administration or poor diet/bad food" (p. 6). Lack of professionalism amongst headteachers is chronicled in the Secretary's annual reports (1985, 1986, 1987, 1989). This lack of professionalism manifested itself in the form of misappropriation of school funds by some headteachers, headteacher—and teacher—absenteeism from work, and unprofessional conduct of public examinations which threatened the credibility and integrity of the examination system. That school leavers were finding it difficult to get employment because of the poor performance of the economy did not help the situation.

Against this background, various publics began to question the internal and external efficiency of the education system. Schools were reproached for their mediocrity and their failure to provide education of the necessary relevance and quality. Realizing the seriousness of the problem and appreciating the fact that the problems cited above reflected a general malaise at the heart of school administration, the Ministry of Education and Culture (MEC) opted for the in-servicing of headteachers as a strategy for school improvement. Headteachers were targeted for in-service education because they were considered central to the process of educational change. The centrality of the headteacher's role was acknowledged by Lipham et al. (1985), who asserted that headteachers play a very central role in creating a safe and orderly school environment, promoting a high degree of expectation for student success, developing a clear and focused school vision, organizing schoolwide training for teachers, providing strong leadership, and closely monitoring student progress. Storey (1988) stated unequivocally that "effective schools have effective principals" (p. 39). Like Storey, Kimborough and Burkett (1990) maintained that "strong leadership by the school principal is essential for achieving educational excellence" (p. 2). More poignantly, the World Bank (1990), after reviewing the Zimbabwe education system, concluded that

> learning achievements depend heavily on the competence of headteachers and teachers. Raising this competence should be a matter of first priority. . . . Increasing the competence of headmasters is thus of central importance. Regular and planned in-service training of secondary school heads, especially the young ones, should now be a main task. (p. 60)

In emphasizing the importance of the headteacher, one is not envisioning a solo performer. Rather, it is to acknowledge the potential and the necessity of visionary leadership which has the capacity, through the school and its staff, to turn vision into reality. As Daresh and Playko (1992) observed, "The recognition of importance is equal to the designation of culpability" (p. 14). Thus the in-service education and training courses upon which the MEC embarked from 1983 aimed at enhancing the professional adequacy of headteachers by equipping them with the requisite knowledge, skills, and attitudes.

Notwithstanding the fact that most headteachers of secondary schools in Zimbabwe have attended several in-service courses, problems relating to school administration have remained persistent and intractable. This has raised concerns about the efficacy of in-service education courses as a strategy for improving the headteachers' capacity to manage their schools effectively. This research therefore sought to establish what needs to be done to enhance the effectiveness of in-service education courses for headteachers of secondary schools in Harare Region, one of the nine regions that has done very well, in quantitative terms, in in-servicing headteachers.

Statement of Purpose

As stated above, the purpose of this research was to determine what needs to be done to enhance the effectiveness of in-service education for headteachers of government secondary schools in Harare Region, Zimbabwe.

The Problem Statement

In order to achieve the purpose of this study, the following research question was explored:

> WHAT NEEDS TO BE DONE TO MAKE IN-SERVICE EDUCATION AND TRAINING COURSES FOR HEADTEACHERS OF GOVERNMENT SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN HARARE REGION, ZIMBABWE, MORE EFFECTIVE?

To guide the research and to facilitate data analysis and interpretation, seven sub-questions listed below were addressed.

Question 1

Are headteachers of government secondary schools in Harare Region involved in the assessment of their in-service needs?

Question 2

Does the content of the in-service courses reflect the needs of headteachers?

Question 3

What methodologies are used to deliver the in-service courses for headteachers?

Question 4

What incentives are used to encourage headteachers to partake in in-service education courses?

Question 5

How satisfied are headteachers with the competence of the facilitators who deliver their in-service education?

Question 6

When are in-service education courses evaluated?

Question 7

What can be done to make in-service education courses for headteachers more effective?

Significance of the Study

Lipham et al. (1985) argued that wherever one finds outstanding schools, one finds outstanding headteachers. Their main areas of responsibility include (a) curriculum and instruction, (b) staff and pupil personnel functions, (c) community and school relations, (d) the organization and structure of the school, and (e) the maintenance of the school plant facilities. In fact, a headteacher, according to Kimborough and Burkett (1990), "is accountable for the entire operation of the school" (p. 4). Barth (1993) expressed a similar view when he intimated that headteachers (principals) should demonstrate the ability to develop and articulate a vision of excellence in teaching and learning. If headteachers have such a profound effect upon school operations, it follows that they should be as thoroughly prepared as possible for their onerous task. One potent intervention for headteacher competency development and capacity building is in-service education that is properly planned, implemented, and evaluated. Herein lies the significance of this study.

1. The study explores strategies for enhancing the effectiveness of in-service courses for headteachers.

2. Although the research is delimited to the headteachers of government secondary schools in Harare Region, the findings should be of interest to the Ministry of Education and Culture as it strives to improve the quality of school administration through headteacher in-service education.

3. The findings of this study should provoke some introspection among the providers of in-service education especially with regard to the planning and conduct of in-service education courses.

4. The information generated by this study should provide some insight into how headteachers perceive the current in-service education practices. It is hoped that this will lead to changes and modifications where they are deemed necessary.

5. This study also exposed areas for further research with a view to generating more knowledge and better understanding about administrator in-service. Such areas include research methodology, data-collection procedures, research objectives, and research orientation.

6. The data from this research may also be used for mobilizing resources for headteacher support programs because ongoing learning and improved effectiveness are not optional for educators, particularly school administrators.

Definition of Terms

Below are the operational definitions of the key terms used in this study. The terms are defined as they are used and understood in the Zimbabwean educational context.

EDUCATION OFFICER: A person who supervises teachers and organizes in-service education activities for both teachers and headteachers.

FORMER GROUP A SCHOOLS: Schools designated for white children only prior to independence.

FORMER GROUP B SCHOOLS: Schools set aside for black children only before independence.

HEADTEACHER: A head of a school.

IN-SERVICE EDUCATION: Courses for headteachers organized by the regional office personnel with a view to equipping headteachers with the knowledge, skills, and attitudes which enable them to function more effectively as school administrators.

'O'-LEVEL EXAMINATIONS: Public examinations that students take after four years of secondary education.

QUADRANT ASSESSMENT MODEL: A needs-assessment model that makes use of discrepancy analysis to identify in-service needs. The model as a conceptual organizer for determining the in-service needs of headteachers is described in detail in Chapter 3.

STC: Secondary teacher's certificate obtained after four years of secondary education and three years of training at a teacher-training college.

TASK AREAS: Areas of the headteacher's responsibility. The six areas of the headteacher's responsibility pertinent to this study are defined in the relevant sections of this research.

TASK STATEMENTS: These are statements that reflect the tasks that headteachers perform.

TEACHER-TRAINING COLLEGES: Institutions specializing in the training of teachers. They are independent of the university system, although accreditation is the prerogative of the University of Zimbabwe.

T1: This was a teaching qualification obtained after four years of secondary education and three years of training at a teacher-training college. It has since been replaced by STC.

Assumptions

This research was carried out on the basis of the following assumptions:

1. In-service education is a potent strategy for equipping headteachers with the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that they require for effective job performance.

2. Educators such as headteachers need in-service education throughout their careers in order to stay current and effective.

3. Because improvement in educational practice takes considerable time, in-service activities should therefore be systematic and long range.

4. Headteachers have the capacity and capability to assess their own performances as objectively as is humanly possible.

5. Survey items covered the major areas of the headteacher's work and the essential elements of in-service education.

6. All respondents interpreted the questionnaire items in a similar manner because they belonged to the same education system.

Delimitations

1. This study was delimited to headteachers of government secondary schools in Harare Region. Consequently, the information that it generated is intended for use by Harare Region in improving the quality of in-service education provision.

2. The research focused on course-based in-service education conceived, organized, and conducted by the regional office personnel. University courses, conferences, and workshops organized by other interested parties were not included in the study.

3. Much of the information on in-service education for headteachers was based on lessons learnt from in-service education for teachers because of the limited availability of studies focusing directly on the in-servicing of headteachers.

4. The task statements used in this study were basically those used by Sanders (1980) in assessing the in-service needs of principals within the Grande Prairie School District #2357. These were subsequently refined to suit the conditions in Harare Region.

Limitations

1. Data collection relied on the use of a questionnaire which did not allow for further exploration of some of the responses. Time and resources permitting, the interview method could have been used for triangulation purposes.

2. The study depended very heavily on the headteachers' integrity in assessing their own performances. However, human nature at times defeats the best of intentions.

3. The pilot study was restricted to a very small group of Zimbabwean educators pursuing further studies in Canada. It would have been more ideal to pilot-test the instrument using a bigger sample of subjects from the target population.

4. The findings of the study relate to the provision of in-service education to headteachers of government secondary schools in Harare Region, which is by and large urban and has a relatively stable core of headteachers. Consequently, the findings may not be generalizable to the remaining eight regions, which are rural and have a higher turnover of headteachers.

5. This research was directed toward problem solving. It was not related to any identifiable theory base. A theory-testing or theory-building orientation could have improved the overall understanding of in-service education for school administrators.

Organization of the Thesis

The introduction and background to the study, the problem statement, the significance of the study, the definition of the key terms used in the study, the assumptions underlying the study, the delimitations, and the limitations of the research have been presented in Chapter 1.

Chapter 2 focuses on the review of the relevant literature.

The research design and methodology are presented in Chapter 3.

Data analysis and interpretation and the major findings of the research are presented in Chapter 4.

Chapter 5 focuses on the summary of the study, the conclusions drawn from the findings, the implications of the study, and suggestions for further research. The conclusion to the whole study is also presented in this chapter.

Chapter 2

Review of Related Literature

Introduction

In order to develop some insight into the research problem posed in Chapter 1, a review of the literature relating to school administration and in-service education and training for educators was undertaken. The outcome of the literature review is the subject of this chapter, with emphasis on the role of the headteacher, the skills that he/she needs for effective job performance, the definition and purpose of in-service education, the two competing perspectives on in-service education, and research findings on some critical aspects of in-service education for headteachers. A summary of the main ideas gleaned from the literature review rounds off this chapter.

The Role of the Headteacher

The consensus amongst the writers on school administration is that headteachers play a very critical role in bringing about school effectiveness. Lipham, Rankin, and Hoeh (1985) maintained that where one finds outstanding schools, one finds outstanding headteachers. Corroborating this assertion, Kimborough and Burkett (1990) argued that "strong leadership by the school principal is essential for achieving educational excellence" (p. 2). Barth (1993) also acknowledged the crucial role that headteachers play in the operations of the school by intimating that the principal provides a vision or sense of direction to the school. In order to appreciate why headteachers have such a profound effect on the operations of the school, it is essential to examine some of the functions, duties, and responsibilities associated with headship as well as the skills that headteachers need for effective job performance.

The role of the headteacher is very complex and demanding. Writers on school headship or principalship hold different perceptions about what the headteacher's role should be. Weldy (1979) viewed the headteacher as an instructional leader, an acknowledged expert, a decision maker, a problem solver, and a disciplinarian. Morris, Crowson, Porter-Gehrie, and Hurwitz (1984) stressed that the headteacher is a site manager, a mediator, and a creator of an enabling environment. NAESP (1991) maintained that an effective headteacher should demonstrate leadership, supervisory, and management proficiencies. To circumvent the problem of differences in the perception of the headteacher's role, Kimborough and Burkett (1990) proposed that "the best way to summarize the functions of school principals is to consider the task areas of their responsibility" (p. 4).

One of the key task areas of the headteacher's responsibilities is curriculum and instruction. According to Burns (1991), the curriculum, which refers to what is taught and how it is taught, constitutes "the very heartbeat of the school" (p. 40). The headteacher, in collaboration with the teachers, plays a very crucial role in the development of the curriculum. This role has become very critical in the face of knowledge explosion and the demands, often conflicting, that are imposed on the school system by society.

In addition to the development of the curriculum, headteachers, together with teachers, are responsible for designing the strategies for the delivery of the curriculum. These strategies include the methods of curriculum delivery and the supervision of the delivery of the curriculum. Lipham et al. (1985) observed:

> Improving the instructional program constitutes the foremost function of a principal. If one had to select the single factor that spells the difference between success or failure of the school, it would be the ability of a principal to lead the staff in planning, implementing, and evaluating improvements in the school's curricular, co-curricular, and extracurricular offerings and activities. (p. 129)

The full import of the quotation above is that not only should the headteacher supervise the teaching-learning process, but he or she must evaluate it regularly. Through regular evaluation, the headteacher is able to know the strengths, weaknesses, styles, and personalities of the teaching staff. Schön (1983) argued that, by observing teachers, the headteacher has the responsibility "to compliment the accomplished, support the inexperienced, counsel with the specialists and correct or eliminate the incompetent" (p. 20).

Furthermore, evaluation or appraisal should be regarded as a means to an end, the end being teacher growth, development, and renewal. It is the responsibility of the headteacher to make available to teachers opportunities for personal and professional growth either by organizing in-service, staff-development, and renewal activities or by allowing teachers to attend such programs. It is also the duty of the headteacher to ensure that adequate resources are available for teachers to deliver the curriculum in the most effective and efficient manner. Although there is unanimity about the role of the headteacher as an instructional leader, Howell (1981) cautioned that this role is being compromised in favor of office mandates.

Staff personnel function is another important task area of the headteacher's responsibility. The success of a school depends very largely on the headteacher's performance in this area. Kimborough and Burkett (1990) advised that "the principal's primary task is to motivate teachers to do what needs to be done, assist them in the performance of their tasks, and maintain a schedule of when it needs to be done" (p. 260). Lipham et al. (1985) went further and identified the following as the major staff personnel functions of headteachers: identification of new staff, assignment of staff, staff orientation, evaluation of staff, and provision of in-service education in the interest of educational excellence.

Headteachers also have a student personnel function to perform. Kimborough and Burkett (1990) posited that "achieving a school of quality is dependent on a well-administered student personnel program" (p. 273). Echoing this conviction, Lipham et al. (1985) asserted that "students constitute the ultimate client system to be served, hence, they must be involved actively and appropriately, not only in the teaching-learning process, but also in the operation and activities of the school" (p. 198). It is therefore imperative for the headteacher to involve students in decision making, program planning, and broader policies of the school. The headteachers should also provide adequate student personnel services through vital guidance and teacher-advisory programs as well as making sure that a student information system is in place. Over and above that, the maintenance of acceptable levels of discipline amongst the students is essential for a school to succeed in attaining its goals.

Successful realization of the school's goals depends by and large on the effective management of the available resources. Headteachers are therefore expected to demonstrate leadership in the acquisition and utilization of human, monetary, and material resources in providing an education that is appropriate for each student.

In addition to resource management, headteachers are responsible for system-wide policies and operations. As subsystems schools have an obligation towards the larger educational community. Supportive relationships must be established with both administrative and instrumental communities to facilitate goal attainment. Headteachers have to work closely with the central office by making sure that school goals are consistent with the goals of education, by communicating effectively with the central office, and by implementing recommendations made by central office personnel, taking into account their own peculiar circumstances. Moreover, schools of today cannot function as islands. They can no longer function as private places. The community and parents want increasingly to know what is happening. The headteacher should therefore strive to develop healthy relations with the local community to enable parents to participate actively and meaningfully in the educational activities of the school. Effective school-community interface enables the staff to analyze and understand the home and neighborhood conditions of their students. Kimborough and Burkett (1990) asserted that "school excellence requires good school and community relations, including parents who support the school and are involved in their children's education" (p. 5). Lipham et al. (1985) commented:

> Since the schools belong to the people, citizen input should be sought concerning the goals, priorities, policies, and programs of the school. Today's citizens are better informed, more knowledgeable, and more sophisticated than in the past, hence their suggestions should be sought continually and studied seriously. (p. 260)

In addition to establishing healthy relations with their communities, headteachers are also responsible for the operation of the school plant facilities. One of their tasks is to oversee the development of optimum environmental conditions for the instructional process and for the health and safety of students and staff. Kimborough and Burkett (1990) advised that regular surveillance of the school plant facilities by the headteacher is essential.

Above all else, one of the most important functions for a headteacher is the provision of leadership to the school. According to Cawelti (1982), "Leaders are expected to lead, to provide a sense of direction, to motivate others towards attainment of goals, and to build consensus" (p. 325). Headteachers thus have a duty to demonstrate facilitative leadership. This requires flexibility in their leadership style when dealing with varying situations because ultimately what matters is not so much the accomplishment of the tasks that they are expected to perform, but how they carry out these functions.

If headteachers are to perform the tasks outlined above efficiently, they need not only the requisite knowledge, but also a set of finely honed skills. Kimborough and Burkett (1990) noted that the skills needed by an effective headteacher are extensive and diverse. They concluded that "the school principal does need a far greater range of skills than the ordinary middle manager in other organizations" (p. 17). However, as Lungu (1983) acknowledged, the identification of the critical skills and competencies required for effective school administration is problematic. The skills are so many that they almost defy any attempt to list them. Be that as it may, several attempts have been made to develop a corpus of skills that headteachers as administrators require for the effective performance of their duties.

Pawliuk and Pickard (1976), Cawelti (1982), and Kimborough and Burkett (1990) suggested that administrators need peer skills; leadership skills; conflict-resolution skills; information-processing skills; decision-making skills; resource-allocation skills; entrepreneurial skills; skills of introspection; such management skills as planning, organizing, directing or motivating, and controlling; instructional leadership skills; and interpersonal skills.

Whatever skills headteachers need cannot be mastered through preservice training alone because no administrator-preparation program can assume lifetime proficiency. Acquired knowledge and skills must be continually modified and refined so as to respond to the ever-changing needs of the students, staff, and community. In-service education holds much promise as a strategy for both the development and the renewal of the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that headteachers require for effective job performance.

The Concept of In-Service Education

In-service education is one of the most widely used strategies for enhancing the professional adequacy of headteachers. In order to understand the full import of in-service education, a detailed description of the concept and its ramifications was deemed necessary, particularly when one considers the amount of time, energy, and financial resources that have been invested in in-service education.

Definition. Writers on in-service education frequently use the terms staff development and in-service education interchangeably. Dale (1982) observed that authors "either equate the terms or fail to note the distinction between the two" (p. 31). Dale went on to define staff development as the totality of educational and personal experiences that contribute toward an individual's being more competent and satisfied in an assigned role. Dale viewed in-service education as a facet of staff development. Young (1987) defined staff development as a process by which an administrator or supervisor, and thereby the school system, analyzes the potential areas for growth and provides opportunities to facilitate that growth. Orlich (1989), like Dale and Young, asserted that "staff development subsumes in-service education projects and also addresses the larger issue of developing organizational problem-solving capacities and leadership skills" (pp. 5-6).

Dillon-Peterson (1981) characterized staff development as "a process designed to foster personal and professional growth for individuals within a respectful, supportive, positive organizational climate having its ultimate aim as better learning for students and continuous, responsible self-renewal for educators and schools" (p. 3). The thrust of these three definitions of staff development is that it is an ongoing process aimed at performance improvement.

Regarding in-service education, Orlich (1989) provided the most comprehensive definition of the concept. According to Orlich:

> In-service education denotes programs or activities that are based on identified needs; that are collaboratively planned and designed for a specific group of individuals . . . ; that have a very specific set of learning objectives and activities; and that are designed to extend, add, or improve immediate job-oriented skills, competencies, or knowledge with the employer paying the cost. (p. 5)

Thus, although in-service education is subsumed in the notion of staff development, it tends to be specific in terms of its objectives.

The term professional development also appeared very frequently in the literature on in-service education. Young (1987) defined professional development as "the continuing process of occupational education engaged in by adults who are members of a profession. It includes the updating and the expansion of one's knowledge in an area of professional specialization. It is primarily self directed" (pp. 7-8).

Need for in-service education. The literature on in-service education is replete with reasons why in-service education, as a strategy for the professional growth of an educator, should have its place among other educational priorities.

The overarching purpose of in-service education is competency development. Competency development for school administrators is crucial because schools of today have become complex organizations because of their sheer size, their diversified curricula, the expectations that parents and communities have about schools, and the introduction of an array of educational technology. Further, because schools have significant resources at their disposal, school administrators are expected to demonstrate greater efficiency and accountability in managing these resources. Cawelti (1982) observed that few social institutions could withstand the pressures faced by schools. These pressures "have placed demands on school administrators for skills unheard of several years ago" (p. 324). In the light of these demands and pressures, in-service education becomes critical in equipping school administrators with the requisite knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Fitch and Kopp (1990) acknowledged that "a staff development program, carefully designed to meet the pressing needs of the current era, represents the best approach to meeting the escalating challenges of modern society placed upon our schools" (p. 3).

In addition to grappling with complex organizations such as schools, school administrators are at the forefront of the battle to create an environment for quality education. Their role involves decision making; managing and administering the curriculum and teaching; providing pastoral care to students; maintaining acceptable levels of discipline among both the students and the staff; assessing and evaluating the teaching-learning processes; costing and forward planning; resource allocation; staff selection, appraisal, and deployment; maintaining healthy relationships with the community; mastering skills for surviving the politics of schools as organizations; and, above all, the provision of educational leadership that promotes excellence in the pursuit of learning. Because of the complexity of the school administrators' role, it is imperative that they be equipped with a repertoire of skills that enable them to perform their duties with proficiency. Fitch and Kopp (1990) asserted that

> in pursuit of excellence in education, consideration must be given to the need for creation of excellence in people through the many and varied staff development options now available. Excellence can become a reality if the staff development program focus is upon activities that will truly affect change. (p. 11)

Without the requisite skills, many school administrators would be overwhelmed. The situation is extremely trying for school administrators working in African settings because they work under the most difficult conditions and are often not well prepared for the tasks that they must undertake. More often than not, these school administrators are recruited from the ranks of teachers with proven track records. This approach to the recruitment of school administrators is premised on the belief that if one had been a good teacher, one ought to be a good school administrator. Headship or principalship is thus seen as a mere extension of good classroom practice. Moreover, it is mistakenly believed that experience as a deputy headteacher is adequate apprenticeship. Kelly (1987) contended that deputies spend most of their time at tasks that they will not perform as heads or principals. Daresh and Playko (1992) also observed that the "image of administration as a normal extension of one's work as a teacher no longer exists" (p. 68). They lamented the fact that entrance into school administration as a career is more often than not a function of happenstance. With no preservice training, school administrators are expected to acquire skills of management and administration on the job; hence the need for in-service education.

In addition to competence building, in-service education helps to prepare school administrators for a variety of other roles. As chief executives, school administrators are at the receiving end of new educational policies. On them depends the implementation of these new policies and other innovations, sometimes with little or no consultation, at short notice, and with inadequate resources. Furthermore, school administrators in African settings have to cope with a range of external pressures and internal constraints which their counterparts elsewhere would find intolerable: Some school administrators run two schools in one through double sessioning or hot seating for no extra remuneration, they have to organize supplementary feeding programs for the children, and they have to contend with an endless stream of clients who believe that talking to the headteacher face to face is more efficacious than telephoning. To make matters worse, they perform these duties in contexts of extreme resource stringency. Against this backdrop, in-service education becomes critical. It has the potential for providing the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that should stand school administrators in good stead. Lungu (1983) argued that in-service education and training have several advantages over trial-and-error apprenticeship in that they help to organize and discipline knowledge which would otherwise be gained only after prolonged and possibly wasteful experiences. This advantage is critical in African contexts because African education systems are faced with complex problems of considerable magnitude. Trial-and-error apprenticeship in situations characterized by a relatively high degree of turbulence resulting from instability, rapidity of change, and unpredictability means that "administrative quacks learn at the great expense of clients and high cost to the system. African education has suffered more from trial-and-error apprenticeship than it has benefited" (p. 87).

In-service education is also essential for effective performance by school administrators because teacher-preparation programs are inadequate for training school administrators. Commenting on the inadequacy of preservice training for teachers, Broudy (1978) observed that "preservice training . . . is a survival kit fashioned to keep the teacher alive until the in-service rescue squad can supply first aid and resuscitation" (p. 58). Rubin (1971) observed that "at the moment he leaves the professional school, the teacher is en route to a state of obsolescence" (p. 246). Wilson (1977) maintained that "certification does not serve as a miraculous guarantee of lifelong teaching success, but serves merely as a turning point toward further practice and growth" (p. 116). Awender (1986) also noted the inadequacy of preservice training when he asserted that "these researchers effectively suggest that candidates go through the teacher training process and complete the metamorphosis from student to teacher, not as a result of their training but in spite of it" (p. 24). The thrust of the argument by these authors is that in-service education is essential in order to supplement preservice preparation.

Orlich (1989) placed emphasis not on the inadequacy of preservice training, but on the need for professional growth on the part of the educator. He intimated that, "regardless of the adequacy of one's preservice or university preparation, no one in the teaching field—from kindergarten teachers to graduates in universities—will ever be adequately prepared at entry level to remain current for an entire career" (p. 1). Thus, in addition to what Osterman and Kottkamp (1993) called the 'Fix-It' approach to in-service education, which aims at addressing specific deficits in educators, Orlich favored the growth approach, which regards in-service education as a continuous process whose main purpose is to sharpen the conceptual, technical, and human skills required of practicing school administrators. This approach sits well with the understanding that the practice of school leadership is constantly undergoing change. As new situations arise, in-service education provides the insight and skills required to cope with the new demands, thus providing school administrators with opportunities to extend the horizons of their own knowledge.

Over and above the reasons given above, in-service education affords school administrators opportunities to meet and exchange ideas and experiences. Barth (1993) asserted that working alone is good neither for the quality of the product nor for the quality of life of those who produce the product. He went further to suggest that "energy and idealism are also unlocked when principals collaborate. Many wonderful ideas come forth when two or three people brainstorm and bounce thoughts off one another" (p. 19). Dadey and Harber (1991) observed that school administrators in Africa work in settings devoid of any support network: Headteacher associations are often not viable, instructional materials are either paltry or nonexistent, and professional advice or support is sporadic. Professional isolation impedes creativity because it is not easy to be a lone innovator. Thus in-service education provides a force for the consolidation and reaffirmation of knowledge. Such fora allow school administrators to reflect about their practice. A balance between action and reflection is essential because, according to Nixon (1989), "action without reflection is blind; reflection without action is impotent" (p. vi).

In addition to providing fora for the exchange of ideas, in-service education can be used as a vehicle for inculcating a sense of professionalism, dedication, and commitment in school administrators. A sense of professionalism is sometimes lacking in some school administrators in Africa. This lack of professionalism manifests itself in the form of absenteeism from duty, embezzlement of school funds, improper conduct of examinations, failure to respond to requests for information, the inability to translate policies into the dailiness of the headteacher' work, and poor school-community relations.

In summary, writers on in-service education for school administrators viewed in-service education as a basic and necessary component of the continuing preparation of school administrators as they extend their professional or technical knowledge. Orlich (1989) averred:

> Every educator is a continuous learner who wants to solve organizational and institutional problems, wants to be involved in educational decision-making processes, and recognizes that staff or personal development is an imaginative, inventive on-going process, not a singular event. (p. 8)

Identification of in-service needs. One theme that pervaded the literature on in-service education was the contention that the training of educational personnel is fundamental to the improvement and sustenance of educational quality. It should therefore not be organized on an ad hoc basis. Instead, in-service education should be based on thoroughly researched needs.

Orlich (1989), Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991), and Kinder and Harland (1991) argued that, for in-service education programs to succeed, they should be demand led. For the programs to be demand led, they should be based on thoroughly researched needs assessment. Fitch and Kopp (1990) observed that "continuous assessment and problem identification are necessary in order to determine participants' interests regarding the elements of a proposed program" (p. 11). Lunenburg and Ornstein (1991) and Tranfield, Skok, and McLaughlin (1991) advised that a needs assessment and analysis should precede the planning of in-service education programs. Oldroyd and Hall (1991) described needs identification and prioritization as the foundation stones for effective in-service education. Such a needs assessment upon which successful in-service education is based is best carried out through close consultation between the providers of in-service activities and the consumers of those activities. Wilson (1977) observed that "it is being recognized that the most effective programs are planned with the input of those affected by them, not from the perspective of a single person" (p. 118). Involvement of prospective participants gives them voice and creates a sense of ownership. Gone are the days when the identification of in-service needs was casual, ad hoc, and at the whim of individuals. In order to obviate ad hocracy in determining in-service needs, Sanders (1980) advocated for a systematic, logical approach to the identification of in-service needs. In-service needs of personnel in education can be identified in several ways. For example, the providers of in-service education can (a) conduct surveys (interviews and questionnaires) to collect a list of individual training or learning needs; (b) consult experts such as experienced trainers, researchers, and university lecturers who are fully au fait with the course needs of the various personnel in education; (c) conduct research into operational problems and demands of educational personnel; (d) use job analysis or specifications to determine the knowledge and skills required by educational personnel; (e) use the accumulated knowledge and experiences of already-existing training institutions; (f) use the various evaluation reports of past training courses; (g) conduct job audits to determine specific areas of work where job skills are lacking and where in-service education and training are needed; and (h) use discrepancy models to assess in-service needs of educational personnel. According to Verma (1984), the purpose of these assessment strategies is to determine the discrepancy between "what is" and "what is desired." Rebore (1991) concurred with Verma when he observed that the process of assessing needs is essentially the process of determining the discrepancy between the existing and the needed competencies of the staff. Rebore defined discrepancy as the difference between reality and desire.

The inference to be made from the literature on in-service education is that successful in-service programs are based on the needs of the participants for whom the in-service is intended. Fitch and Kopp (1990) maintained that "a staff development project geared to the genuine needs of a given group of people, implemented by persons who are knowledgeable concerning these needs, is the key to a successful program" (p. 39). Thus if in-service education activities are developed from the school administrators' needs, the mismatch common with course-based models is avoided. Collegiality and collaboration between the providers and consumers of in-service education are the key to success. Accordingly, in-service programs should not be based on needs defined from the outside and simply transmitted to school administrators as received wisdom—taken-for-granted assumptions that school administrators are expected to embrace and to translate into good practice. Nixon (1989) warned that training needs are never self-evident.

One of the problems bedevilling in-service education provision in many African countries is poor or inadequate assessment of in-service needs of educational personnel, particularly those of school administrators. Chipanah (1990) concluded that little attention has been paid to the training of frontline implementors such as headteachers and principals. He contended that, more often than not, programs are organized to meet the system's needs rather than the needs of the presumed beneficiaries of in-service activities. Dadey and Harber (1991), commenting on in-service programs organized for school administrators in most African countries, observed:

> They tend to be unsystematic, patchy, and inadequate in terms of content and coverage. In one or two cases, programmes merely consisted of meetings hurriedly organized by ministry officials to explain some new government policies on education. In other instances, programmes are organized to introduce heads to curricular innovations and other education reforms, without addressing their broader administrative and managerial problems. (p. 25)

This quotation underscores the view that, for in-service education programs to be systematic, focused, and appropriate, collaborative and comprehensive assessment of in-service needs is the first prerequisite for success, particularly in a world where change is the norm.

In-service education and training objectives. Once the in-service needs have been identified, analyzed, selected, and prioritized, in-service education and training objectives can be formulated. According to Harris and Monk (1992), these objectives should describe the behaviors or performances that the training experiences are expected to produce. Harris (1980) stated that the training objectives should be as explicitly stated as possible, for the purposes of both validating them against the needs they were intended to serve and guiding the selection of activities and other design considerations. Bishop (1976) advised that "planning for staff development or instructional gain requires that the needs be translated into objectives" (p. 42). Further, objectives act as benchmarks against which the success of in-service programs can be measured or assessed. Gleave (1983) asserted that specific objectives should guide the design, implementation, and evaluation of staff-development activities. Bishop summarized the importance of formulating in-service objectives when he asserted that, "in any systematic approach, a needs analysis is followed closely by the delineation of objectives that provide clarification of intent, focus for development, and criteria for evaluation" (p. 42). Admittedly, specific objectives give focus and direction to in-service activities. However, it is important to realize that there is room for goals (general objectives!) in developing in-service programs: Such goals should reflect broad expectations for improvement in the educator's performance. Reducing everything to specific objectives has an inherent danger of trivializing learning.

Content of in-service programs. Writers on in-service education concur that the content of in-service programs should address the needs identified by the educators themselves as reflected in the training objectives. Bishop (1976) noted that objectives are the key to translating problems or needs into programs and that every objective should have a program response. This is necessary in order to achieve each objective; it is also critical in the subsequent monitoring or auditing and in the formative and summative evaluation of in-service programs. The beneficiaries of in-service education should be actively involved in designing the content of the in-service programs in order to ensure success. Fitch and Kopp (1990) observed that, unless a participant fully understands and accepts a new program as something that will improve performance, there is no reason to adopt a new approach. Participants must feel that the content of the program is theirs. Fitch and Kopp maintained that the internalization factor, the feeling that "this is my program," is paramount to the successful implementation of in-service programs.

Strategies for in-service delivery. The literature on in-service education stressed the importance of selecting a system of delivery that best accomplishes the goals and objectives of the in-service. Orlich (1989) observed that "the general use of workshops, clinics, short courses, seminars, and institutes should be derived from identified needs" (p. 37). Lunenburg and Ornstein (1991) maintained that the key is to match the technique of delivery with the training objectives. Joyce and Showers (1980) stressed the importance of aligning the methodology to the desired outcome. They wrote:

> Where the fine tuning of style is the focus, modeling, practice under simulated conditions . . . combined with feedback, will probably result in considerable changes. Where the mastery of a new approach is the desired outcome, presentations and discussions of theory and coaching for application are probably necessary as well. (p. 384)

Accordingly, providers of in-service education should be familiar with the training methods that they can use to deliver in-service education. These include (a) the lecture and discussion method, (b) the case study, (c) self-instruction and programmed instruction, (d) field training, (e) in-basket or in-tray method, (f) distance-learning method, (g) jury method, (h) coaching, (i) simulation and games method, and (j) role play.

In choosing a particular method or a combination of methods, the providers of in-service education should be aware of the advantages and disadvantages of each method, the possibility of situational application, and its appropriateness. Further, those who organize in-service activities for educators such as school administrators should be cognizant of the fact that these participants "are themselves educators who know how to teach and who know what constitutes appropriate instructional technique" (Orlich, 1989, p. 36). In addition, because educators are adults, providers of in-service education should be sensitive to the adult-learner characteristics which Young (1987) listed as follows:

1. Adults have a need to be self-directed.

2. Adults come to any learning experience with a wide range of previous experiences, skills, interests, and competencies. Fitch and Kopp (1990) advised that these "must be recognized and utilized, in order to develop new skills and practices" (p. 15).

3. Adults will learn, retain, and use what they perceive to be relevant to their personal and professional need.

4. Adults need collegiality rather than criticism from their in-service leaders.

5. Adult learning involves the ego.

6. Adults will resist learning situations which they believe are an attack on their competence.

7. Adults have a need to integrate their present learning with past experience.

Above all, the methods for the delivery of in-service education should ensure active participation by the "users" of in-service education because "learning is not a spectator sport" (Fitch & Kopp, 1990, p. 43). Falkenberg and Loewen (1986) observed that "many principals feel that, having worked out hard problems with the help of others, they have increased their own confidence in directing academic programs in their schools" (p. 71).

Facilitators. The success of in-service programs depends, to a large extent, on the calibre of the facilitators. Kinder and Harland (1991) observed that much of the effectiveness of in-service education inevitably rests on the quality of the relationship between the facilitator and the participants. The attitude of the participants is influenced by such considerations as the facilitators' innovativeness, creativity, and ability to achieve the desired goals or objectives. Commenting on the importance of selecting competent and experienced facilitators or trainers of headteachers, Dadey and Harber (1991) averred:

> One would expect people who serve as course tutors and resource people to have practical experience and knowledge of what headship entails. It is fair to say that course participants benefit more from courses based on an understanding of their day to day activities. (p. 29)

Kinder and Harland cautioned that, while the practicality ethic is important in the delivery of in-service education, it should be supplemented by more discursive and reflexive elements. Practical approaches stress what the world of education is and was, but are rather mute about what it will be like; hence the need for both theory and practice. The onus is on facilitators to demonstrate their knowledgeability and experience if they are to retain their credibility with participants.

Duration. One of the most problematic aspects of in-service education provision is the matter of the duration of in-service activities. Verma (1984) observed that "not many teachers seem to be happy with the one-shot, fragmented, irrelevant type of staff development activity. . . . They want staff development to be continuous, relevant, and an integral part of their job" (p. 9). Kinder and Harland (1991) supported this view when they asserted that in-service provision should be planned as a sustained package of activities rather than as discrete events. The challenge for those who organize in-service education programs is to ensure that these programs are as long as they ought to be and are sustained over a long period to bring about the professional growth and renewal of school administrators.

Incentives and rewards. Writers on in-service education stressed the importance of overt recognition of those who attend in-service education activities. Kinder and Harland (1991) advised that the design and delivery of effective in-service education should go forward in tandem with the implementation of successful strategies for positively rewarding headteachers or principals who engage in these programs to improve their effectiveness. Small (1982) urged that a system of rewards and incentives should be part and parcel of the in-service package. He maintained that "a means must be devised to reward practitioners beyond the natural satisfaction accruing from enhanced expertise" (p. 10). He went on to suggest salary inducements, adjustment of work load, and role redefinition in recognition of new skills as possible rewards and incentives. Fitch and Kopp (1990) suggested innovative approaches for rewarding educators for engaging in in-service education activities. These approaches aim at avoiding too much dependency on monetary rewards, which can be a burden to the fisc. Such incentives and rewards include (a) release time for in-service activities, (b) treating in-service as part of the professionals' contractual obligation, (c) specific stipends paid for participation in a specific in-service activity, (d) career enhancement, and (e) nonmonetary incentives such as awarding of certificates, recognition luncheons, and attendance at selected conferences at the expense of the organizers. Orlich (1989) supported this postulation when he argued that the absence of a clearly articulated system of rewards and incentives for those who take part in in-service activities can adversely affect the morale of participants, thereby limiting the effectiveness of in-service education programs. Ikonne (1985) found out that the majority of respondents to a questionnaire on incentives for participation in in-service activities attached highest importance to incentives that yielded extrinsic as well as intrinsic rewards.

The conclusion to be drawn from the literature reviewed is that it is imperative that humane ways of motivating educational personnel to continue with their education be devised and that efforts aimed at self-improvement be acknowledged and celebrated.

Evaluation. There was consensus among the authors of the literature on in-service education that evaluation be considered as an integral part of the in-service package. Boulanger and Marvin (1984) defined evaluation as "a process of obtaining, delineating, and providing information useful for both improving the day-to-day functioning of a program and judging its worth" (p. 18). Explaining the role of evaluation in in-service education, Verma (1984) asserted that evaluation contributes to decision making, modification, and improvements in in-service education programs. Because of the importance of evaluation, Gleave (1983) insisted that "evaluation should be an integral aspect of the development and implementation of every staff development activity" (p. 19). Despite the crucial role that evaluation plays in the implementation of in-service programs, the evaluation process is widely neglected; hence the dismal failure of some in-service programs. Seyfarth (1991) observed that evaluation of in-service programs is often carried out as an afterthought with little or no advance planning. Orlich (1989) concluded that if staff developers are to achieve and maintain high-quality programs, they must collect trustworthy information and feedback so that their immediate and future decisions are based on empirical data. Evaluation of in-service programs ensures that reactions and perceptions of participants are obtained and adjustments made as needed. Successful activities can be identified for future use, success or failure of programs can be determined, and staff performance can be assessed. Verma maintained that both formative and summative evaluations are necessary in any program evaluation. Formative evaluation focuses on what happens during implementation and helps review the effectiveness of ongoing procedures; summative evaluation, on the other hand, occurs at the end of the program and measures the overall effectiveness of programs. Impact evaluation is also critical because it allows providers of in-service education the opportunity to assess the full impact of the in-service activities on the educator's work setting. Evaluation can thus be used to gauge the success of a program, to determine the strengths and weaknesses of in-service activities, to determine the viability of programs, and to provide a data base for making decisions. Such evaluation data can be gathered through questionnaires, interviews, and observer reports. This raises the issue of the need for follow-up and support to facilitate the implementation of new ideas. Kinder and Harland (1991) argued that follow-up or "after-care" provision should be part of the in-service design. Unless this is done, educators revert to their old ways which are more reassuring and less threatening. Commenting on support programs for school heads in Africa, Dadey and Harber (1991) observed that "during their long careers, they need to rely on regular visits from inspectors and other advisers, and should have regular professional meetings with colleagues in the district. But these things are not happening" (p. 34). Thus the lack of professional support has been the bane of many in-service education programs in many African countries, mainly because of financial constraints.

Perspectives on in-service education. Two perspectives appeared consistently in the literature on in-service education for educators. One view was that in-service education is an exercise in futility, while the other view held that in-service education must be a regular feature in the professional life of all educators, at all levels.

Sportsman (1981a) wrote:

> Inservice is a term which many teachers have increasingly come to regard with a mixture of boredom and loathing. Traditionally, the inservice training program has been a hastily prepared, ineptly presented, educationally stultifying event which uses impractical material and information unrelated to the problems in a school. (p. 307)

Sportsman concluded by asserting that "in the opinion of many teachers, the concept of inservice is outdated and irrelevant" (p. 307). Rubin (1971) described in-service education as virtually a lost cause. According to him, "It is not surprising, therefore, that teachers have grown accustomed to its impotence, and that administrators have come to regard it as a routine exercise in futility" (p. 242). To understand how and why these unfavorable conclusions were arrived at, it is necessary to examine why some in-service education programs and activities fail to achieve the desired goals. The reasons are many and varied.

One of the reasons why some in-service education programs have been criticised is that they rarely address the individual's needs and concerns. They usually address the organiser's perceived needs. Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) observed that topics based on the facilitator's perception frequently do not relate to the needs of the participants for whom the in-service is intended. Wright (1984), referring to in-service education, concluded that this "time-honored approach does not accomplish anything because it starts with the wrong focus" (p. 6). In-service activities that are not needs driven are deemed irrelevant by the participants.

In addition to their failure to address the needs of individuals, some in-service programs have been maligned because the providers of in-service education use inappropriate technologies for in-service delivery. There is too much reliance on traditional approaches: The lecture and discussion method is used ad nauseam, and there is very little provision for reflective practice. Joyce and Showers (1980), Orlich (1989), and Lunenburg and Ornstein (1991) stressed the importance of using appropriate delivery technologies to ensure the success of in-service education programs.

The problem of the use of inappropriate technologies has been compounded by the notion that an expert is needed to remediate the deficits that educators are presumed to have. These experts are seen as outsiders who are both unfamiliar with and unsympathetic to the needs of educators. Sportsman (1981a) noted that "after the session is over, teachers go back to their earlier patterns of behavior, feeling more frustration or cynicism than before the inservice was held" (p. 308). Dependency on outside experts marginalizes the practitioners because they are made to adopt a passive role and are treated as consumers of knowledge, whereas the expert is regarded as the purveyor of knowledge. This breeds resentment and alienation because, according to Schön (1983), the facilitators and the participants do not enter into a reflective conversation.

Noninvolvement of participants in the planning of some in-service education programs has compromised the success of some well-intentioned in-service programs. Dadey and Harber (1991) observed that headteachers in many African countries did not show much interest in in-service programs because they were not involved in planning the in-service programs. Lack of involvement in the program planning means the participants have no sense of ownership in the programs. Ultimately, this compromises the effectiveness of in-service activities.

Furthermore, the duration of an in-service activity or course can undermine its success. Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) observed that one of the reasons why in-service programs fail relates to the duration of the activity. Seyfarth (1991) averred that it is reasonable to believe that more time is needed to teach concepts that are high in complexity. Crowding all materials into one or two meetings does not help participants to integrate the new practices into their existing routines.

The scanty attention paid to the process of evaluation is one of the reasons why in-service education has attracted criticism from educators. Seyfarth (1991), Orlich (1989), and Harris (1980) maintained that monitoring and evaluation of in-service programs are of vital importance in assessing the total impact of the programs and in establishing a base for subsequent program developers. The relevance and currency of objectives, the strengths and weaknesses of in-service activities, the appropriateness of delivery systems, and the effect of in-service education can be established only through systematic evaluation. Consequently, the evaluation of in-service education operations should not be taken lightly. Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) noted that some in-service programs are not effective because follow-up evaluation occurs infrequently and lessons from the evaluation process are not taken seriously.

The problem of poor evaluation is compounded by the lack of provision for follow-up assistance and reinforcement. Seyfarth (1991) argued that providing regular feedback to those charged with implementing new strategies and providing sustained support and follow-up after the initial training are critical elements of an effective staff-development program. Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) intimated that if the individual attempts to put the new ideas into practice, there is no convenient source of help or sharing when problems are encountered; hence the importance of follow-up or "after-care" provision. Hannay (1992) recommended that an effective professional-development plan must incorporate opportunities for individuals to practice new concepts or skills and to receive critical feedback as they attempt to implement new ideas.

The absence of a clearly articulated system of rewards and incentives has not endeared in-service activities to some participants. Orlich (1989) asserted that one issue central to in-service education is largely ignored: that of providing incentives to encourage and reward those who partake in in-service education. Small (1982), Ikonne (1985), and Kinder and Harland (1991) supported the need for a system of incentives and rewards to enhance the effectiveness of in-service education.

Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) cited the inadequacy of resources made available for in-service activities as one of the factors that has led to the abuse and maligning of in-service education programs. The net result is that organizers of in-service activities end up doing too much with very limited resources. Orlich (1989) observed that it takes money to drive any staff-development program and that money is usually shifted or allocated among competing needs. Yet it is axiomatic that any organization that does not invest in human capital does so at its own peril. In-service education means that an organization invests in its total staff to perform educational services at a high level of quality.

One other factor that has compromised the effectiveness of in-service programs is the desire by central office personnel to plan and control in-service programs without necessarily involving beneficiaries. According to Tranfield, Skok, and McLaughlin (1991), such an approach to staff development makes participants view in-service programs as something done to the participants themselves, rather than something done for and with the participants. Collegiality and collaboration lead to greater commitment and dedication to the ideals of in-service education.

In developing countries the absence of a coherent and well-articulated policy on in-service education indicating goals that are grounded in the reality of practitioners, the institutional framework of programs, the in-service education responsibilities of the various personnel, and evaluation strategies has resulted in too much ad hocracy in the provision of in-service education. Harris (1980) argued that, for in-service programs to be successful, they must be guided by policy provisions. He further observed that, because in-service education is concerned with changing the operations of schools, it is a crucial area of policy; because in-service education is costly, it cannot command resources without policy commitment. It is precisely the lack of a clearly defined policy on in-service education that has adversely affected the direction, effort, and persistence of action vis-à-vis in-service programs in developing countries.

The absence of staff-development institutes, especially in developing countries, has also played a very significant role in limiting the appeal of in-service education. According to Dadey and Harber (1991), such institutes "tend to provide a much needed institutional base for the management of training programs, and play an important role in formulating policy, mobilising and deploying scarce human and financial resources, identifying expertise, and developing appropriate practical materials" (p. 38). Such centers can provide a home for seminars, conferences, workshops, and reference materials. In Zimbabwe, for example, the shortage of these centers has led to an excessive use of hotels as venues and the Public Service Training Centres, which are not always available when needed. This, to a large extent, explains, the ad hocracy that characterizes training programs in many African countries. Dadey and Harber supported this view when they observed that "a major problem with headteacher-training programmes in Commonwealth Africa is the absence of facilities for informal study groups, self-learning initiatives and other ad hoc professional upgrading" (p. 39).

Finally, part of the unpopularity of in-service education can be attributed to the philosophy undergirding the traditional in-service initiatives. Osterman and Kottkamp (1993) observed that most in-service programs are based on the 'Fix-It' model or the deficit approach: Practitioners are viewed as having deficits which can be remediated or "fixed" only by outsiders. Osterman and Kottkamp observed that "in this process, knowledge is the province of experts, and learners have access to it through the instructor. The instructor's role is to convey that information in a clear and concise manner; the participant's role is to absorb it" (p. 31). The emphasis is thus on knowledge transmission as the means toward improved practice. This mechanistic approach to in-service education creates negative feelings amongst the participants. Failed programs stand as eloquent reminders that the deficit approach has very little to offer as a model for in-service education.

Despite the dim view that some educators have of in-service education, the consensus amongst many authors is that there is a need to establish in-service education that truly helps to overcome the layers of disappointment and cynicism in educators who are dedicated but disappointed by in-service failures. Sportsman (1981b) asserted that "nearly all recent writers on the subject of inservice education agree that it is necessary, and, far from needing to be eliminated, should be improved and fortified" (p. 309). Rubin (1971) asserted that in-service education "is an indispensable element in the development of craftsmanship" (p. 245). Rubin further insisted that "the veneration of professional growth must have its place among other educational priorities" (p. 258).

Because of the importance attached to in-service education, there are several strategies that can be adopted to improve its effectiveness.

Wilson (1977), Sanders (1980), Orlich (1989), and Oldroyd and Hall (1991) concurred that proper needs identification and prioritization are the foundation stones for effective in-service education. In-service programs that are based on properly identified needs of the target group often avoid the mismatch between the in-service needs and the content of the programs. The assessment of in-service needs should be a collaborative effort of the providers and recipients of in-service education. Gleave (1983) advised that "staff development is most successful when teachers, support staff, administrators, and trustees share commitment and active support for the program" (p. 15). Wilson made the same observation when she wrote, "Generally, it is being recognized that the most effective programs are planned with the input of those affected by them, not from the perspective of a single person" (p. 198).

Meticulous attention should also be paid to the appropriateness of the technologies for the delivery of in-service education. Emphasis should be on those technologies that facilitate the accomplishment of the goals and objectives of the in-service programs. Joyce and Showers (1980), Orlich (1989), and Lunenburg and Ornstein (1991) strongly advocated for the meshing of the technique of delivery with the training objectives. According to Young (1987), strategies for in-service delivery should be sensitive to how adults learn, particularly the need for active participation in the planning, implementation, and evaluation of in-service programs; the importance of recognizing the vast reservoir of experiences, concepts, attitudes, and knowledge of the adult learner; the immediacy of application of what is being learnt; the adult learner's preference for well-organized presentations using concise, focused format with relevant topics; the need for a climate that is informal, respectful, and nonthreatening; and the importance of recognition through a system of incentives and rewards. According to Daresh and Playko (1992), "Administrators prefer in-service education activities that make use of active participant involvement rather than one-way communication techniques such as lectures. Administrators do not wish to go to sessions where they feel that they are being 'talked at'" (p. 133).

In addition to using appropriate technologies, facilitators should be knowledgeable and experienced people. Haydn-Jones (1986) asserted that, for in-service education programs to be effective, they should be "led by individuals who are credible in the eyes of the participants, knowledgeable in the content area, and skilled in educational processes" (p. 16). This view is supported by Dadey and Harber (1991), who suggested that there was a need to train the trainer to ensure that those in whom the responsibility for organizing in-service activities, especially for school administrators, is reposed are conversant with what school administration entails. The World Bank (1990) suggested that such a training program should include facilitation techniques, group dynamics, interpersonal skills, workshop planning and implementation, and monitoring and evaluation. This is to ensure that in-service education is delivered by competent presenters.

For in-service education to have the desired effect, it should be sustained over a long time rather than being regarded as a discrete event. Verma (1984) noted that one-shot in-service activities are ineffective. Verma concluded that "the primary contention is that in-service is a process, not an event; a process of role changes which involve new will, new knowledge, new behaviors and new attitudes" (p. 9). Daresh and Playko (1992) observed:

> Inservice education training activities are viewed as much more effective when they are part of a coherent staff development program that continues over an extended period of time. One-shot ('dog-and-pony show') sessions that promise simple solutions to complex organizational problems are not seen as particularly realistic or useful. (p. 133)

To enhance the effectiveness of in-service education, a well-articulated system of rewards and incentives should be put into place. Small (1982), Ikonne (1985), Orlich (1989), Fitch and Kopp (1990), and Kinder and Harland (1991) recommended that the design and delivery of in-service education should go hand in hand with the implementation of successful strategies for positively rewarding participants who engage in in-service education to improve their proficiency at their job. Such rewards and incentives may include monetary rewards, release time for in-service activities, career enhancement, and awarding of certificates. Recognition and celebration of participation in in-service education activities enhance the appeal of such activities.

Furthermore, in-service program effectiveness and efficiency can be enhanced through evaluation. UNESCO (1992) maintained that "in a training program, evaluation can play several roles. It may have the role of improving the training program" (p. 33). The purposes of evaluation are listed as follows: (a) to determine whether the training program is accomplishing its assigned objectives and also if the objectives are appropriate for the program, (b) to identify the strengths and weaknesses of training activities, (c) to determine the viability of the program, and (d) to provide a data base for making decisions. Orlich (1989) stated that if staff developers are to achieve and maintain high-quality programs, they must collect trustworthy information and feedback through formative and summative evaluation. Evaluation information gathered through questionnaires, interviews, and observation is useful for improving the design and delivery of in-service education programs.

The establishment of in-service centers can also assist in improving the quality of in-service education. Dadey and Harber (1991) and Daresh and Playko (1992) maintained that in-service academies or institutes constitute permanent structures established to address the continuing needs of participants; furthermore, such centers are usually controlled directly by the practitioners, who serve as participants; and they represent a type of grass-roots approach to in-service education, where participants are given considerable opportunity to influence the content and approaches used as part of the learning activity. The establishment of academies together with the provision of follow-up support would facilitate the implementation of new ideas by ending the professional isolation of practitioners which often militates against experimentation with new ideas.

The effectiveness of in-service education can also be improved through a conceptual shift in the philosophy that currently undergirds most in-service education programs. The 'Fix-It' or "deficit approach" appears to be the mainstay of most in-service education programs. According to Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993), organizers of in-service programs who subscribe to this approach place themselves in the driver's seat and take responsibility for the whats, hows, and whens of improvement as they plan and provide in-service and staff-development programs.

This approach alienates practitioners because it is intellectually stultifying and it assumes that practitioners have deficits which can only be remediated by experts. A more robust conceptualization of in-service education based on the growth model should either replace or supplement the deficit model. This approach accepts the practitioner as a competent professional who needs regular in-service education to bring about professional growth. Schön (1983) and Osterman and Kottkamp (1993) concurred that under this approach the organizers of in-service education play a facilitative role. The emphasis is on collegiality and collaboration. Barth (1993) observed that, "when principals are responsible for their own learning, they design things they really enjoy, things that offer a new angle, and often things that are risky" (p. 21). This shift in conceptualization provides a different way of looking at in-service education which often wins the commitment and dedication of the practitioners.

If in-service education programs are to achieve the desired goals, there is a need for a coherent and consistent training policy and wholehearted commitment to such a policy. Dadey and Harber (1991) intimated that no meaningful in-service education programs can be developed without such a policy and commitment. Such a policy should define the functional locus for initiating, organizing, resourcing, and implementing training programs on a permanent and regular basis. This would obviate ad hocracy in organizing and conducting in-service education programs.

Daresh and Playko (1992) suggested a comprehensive list of propositions regarding the planning and implementation of effective in-service education:

> 1. Effective inservice education is directed toward local school needs.
> 2. Inservice participants need to be involved in the planning, implementation, and evaluation of programs.
> 3. Effective inservice is based on participant needs.
> 4. Adult learning processes, rather than passive techniques such as lectures, are viewed as desirable and effective inservice instructional methods.
> 5. Inservice that is part of a long-term, systematic staff development plan is more effective than a one-shot, short-term program.

> 6. Local school inservice must be backed up by commitment of time, money, and other material resources from the central office.
> 7. Effective inservice provides evidence of quality control and is delivered by competent presenters.
> 8. Programs that enable participants to share ideas and give assistance to one another are viewed as successful.
> 9. Inservice programs are effective when they are designed so that individual participants' needs, interests, and concerns are addressed.
> 10. Rewards and incentives, both intrinsic and extrinsic, must be evident to program participants.
> 11. Inservice education activities should be provided during school time.
> 12. Effective inservice education requires ongoing evaluation.
> (p. 140)

In spite of Barth's (1993) observation that "staff development activities designed for principals have generally been so dreadful that few wanted more" (p. 18), the consensus amongst writers on in-service education is that it is necessary and, far from needing to be eliminated, should be improved and fortified.

Related Research

A number of researches pertinent to this study were reviewed.

Sanders (1980) carried out research involving the principals of the Grande Prairie School District #2357. His findings had important implications for this study.

1. The study underscored the importance of using systematic and logical approaches to the identification of in-service needs of school principals. One such approach is the Quadrant Assessment Model (QAM), which depends on discrepancy analysis as a strategy for identifying in-service needs of a target group such as headteachers. Details about the model and how it was used to expedite this study are given in Chapter 3.

2. The areas of the headteacher's (principal's) responsibility that Sanders identified and the task statements developed therefrom were extremely invaluable in developing the questionnaire that was administered to the subjects of this study. The task areas and the questionnaire items are presented in Appendix E.

3. According to Sanders, in studies of this nature where the intention is to establish whether or not there are performance gaps, ranking of in-service needs as identified by the headteachers is not necessary. What is of primary importance is to determine the discrepancy between reality and the ideal.

4. Above all, Sanders' study was a reaffirmation of the importance of involving participants in the planning, implementation, and evaluation of in-service education and training activities. Such empowerment is vital for the success of in-service education.

Ikonne (1985) undertook research involving 251 Nigerian secondary school teachers and 18 principals. The purpose of the study was to determine the teachers' and administrators' perceptions of the in-service needs of secondary school teachers. The following findings of the research were pertinent to this study:

1. Participants preferred in-service activities to be conducted during vacation periods and weekends.

2. Formal lectures with opportunities for questions were the most preferred method of in-service delivery. Seminars came second. Participants felt that lectures were more informative and were easier to follow. The inference to be made is that in-service leaders should ensure that in-service courses are presented through appropriate methods.

3. Participants preferred incentives that yielded extrinsic as well as intrinsic rewards. In-service activities that led to higher qualifications or promotion were preferred because more often than not this results in higher salary as well as higher status. Moreover, such activities have relevant application. The conclusion reached was that in-service activities should be tied to a system of rewards and incentives.

Young (1987) examined research work and writings on in-service education—the theory and practice. The purpose of the study was to identify the criteria that are deemed most effective for successful in-service practices. The study was very informative in a number of ways:

1. The apparently synonymous concepts—professional development, staff development, and in-service education—were discussed and differentiated.

2. The reasons why in-service education has been regarded as ill-conceived, poorly organized, and poorly conducted were ventilated.

3. Strategies for reversing the history of in-service ineffectiveness were proposed.

The World Bank (1990) reviewed the education system in Zimbabwe in order to determine what needed to be done to improve the effectiveness of schools. The research focused on school effectiveness in general, and indicators of effectiveness were identified. Strategies for developing teachers and headteachers were proposed. Several observations were made:

1. The management of the teaching-learning processes was described as being weak, especially teacher supervision by central office personnel and by the headteacher.

2. In-service education that aims at school improvement should focus on the headteacher.

3. In-service leaders should themselves undergo training in in-service delivery to ensure the success and credibility of in-service activities.

4. Adequate resources had to be made available to expedite the delivery of in-service education.

5. The need for the establishment of a defined locus of training was stressed.

6. It was suggested that supervision should focus on teacher support and renewal rather than on inspection.

This review pointed the direction that in-service education should take. Of particular interest was its insistence on the headteacher's being the prime target for in-service education.

Dadey and Harber (1991) explored the nature of the role of the headteacher in the context of two Commonwealth African countries, Botswana and Ghana. They suggested that traditional textbooks on educational administration do not provide a realistic account of the tasks carried out by headteachers in Africa. This study was a milestone in the study of in-service education for headteachers because (a) it portrayed the complexity of the role of a headteacher working in African settings in graphic detail, (b) it exposed the problems currently bedevilling in-service education for headteachers in Africa, (c) strategies which hold promise for better preparation and long-term support for headteachers were suggested, and (d) the importance of international assistance in resourcing headteacher in-service programs was underscored.

Stufflebeam (1993) reported on a study which he carried out with the Texas Education Agency which involved the analysis of positions of nine different categories of educational administrations in Texas. His objective was to identify the duties of educational administrators. This information was considered necessary and appropriate for evaluating administrator competence and performance. From the study, the following 11 generic school-administration duties were identified:

1. Promoting and supporting student growth and development through activities such as diagnosing student needs, examining and improving school/district offerings, monitoring student achievement and attendance, helping students develop a sense of self-worth, and fostering educational effort among parents and teachers.

2. Honoring diversity and promoting equality of opportunity through activities such as recruiting qualified minority and majority staff, examining and addressing

gaps in achievement for different groups of students, and fully integrating schools and programs.

3. Fostering positive school climate through such activities as assessing and planning improvement of school/district/community environment; reinforcing excellence; promoting a positive, caring climate for learning; and employing effective communication skills.

4. Providing leadership in school improvement efforts through activities such as collaborating in the development and articulation of a common vision of improvement, encouraging appropriate risk taking, and ensuring continuous renewal of curriculum, policies, and methods.

5. Stimulating, focusing, and supporting improvement of instruction through activities such as assisting teachers in designing learning experiences for students; using evidence to evaluate and suggest areas for improvements in the design, materials, and implementation of educational programs; encouraging the development and piloting of innovative instructional programs; and facilitating the planning and application of emerging technologies in the classroom.

6. Leading and managing personnel effectively through activities such as delegating appropriately, recognizing exemplary performance of a subordinate, encouraging personal and professional growth and leadership among the staff, complying with applicable personnel policies and rules, securing the necessary personnel resources to meet objectives, and evaluating the job performance of subordinates.

7. Managing administrative, fiscal, and facilities functions effectively through activities such as obtaining broad-based input for fiscal/financial analysis, compiling reasonable budgets and cost estimates, ensuring that facilities are maintained and upgraded as necessary, and managing a broad range of operations (e.g., attendance, accounting, payroll, transportation).

8. Promoting and supporting positive student conduct through activities such as developing and communicating guidelines for student conduct, ensuring that rules are uniformly observed, disciplining students for misconduct in an effective and fair manner, promoting collaboration by working with faculty, and encouraging student/parent participation.

9. Fostering effective school-community relations through activities such as articulating the school/district mission and student needs to the community; seeking support for programs; involving students, parents, and others from the community in serving school programs; and involving oneself in community activities that foster rapport between the school/district and the larger community.

10. Fostering professional development of school personnel through activities such as participating actively in professional associations, conducting oneself in an ethical and professional manner, staying abreast of professional issues and developments in education, disseminating ideas and information to other professionals, and seeking and using evaluative information for improvement of performance.

11. Relating effectively to the school board/council through activities such as meeting the board's information needs; interacting with the board members in an ethical, sensitive and professional manner; demonstrating competence in written and verbal communications to the board; educating the board about education; and recommending policies to enhance teaching and learning.

Summary

Headteachers play a very crucial role in making schools more productive. They are responsible for student growth and development; fostering a positive school climate; providing leadership in school improvement; stimulating, focusing, and supporting the improvement of instruction; leading and managing personnel effectively; managing administrative, fiscal, and facilities functions; promoting and supporting student conduct; fostering effective school-community relations; fostering professional development; and relating effectively to the school board/council.

Their capacity to perform these functions is circumscribed by the complexity of schools as organizations, the inadequacy of preservice training where it exists, and the demands made on schools by the various publics. Against this backdrop, in-service education based on properly assessed needs and delivered by competent presenters using appropriate delivery strategies becomes very essential. Despite its potential as a strategy for competency building, in-service education has had both supporters and detractors; and what appears disputatious is not whether it is desirable, but rather how it is delivered.

Research on in-service education stressed the importance of needs assessment, the use of appropriate delivery methods by competent organizers and presenters, the need for the recognition of participation through a clearly articulated system of rewards and incentives, and the need for program evaluation and "after-care" provision to be taken seriously.

The major ideas garnered from the literature review were used in developing the research methodology described in Chapter 3.

Chapter 3

Research Design and Methodology

The research design and the methodological procedures for the study constitute the essence of this chapter. Its main sections include the research design, the development and administration of the research instrument, the pilot study and its results, procedures for data analysis, and the use of the Quadrant Assessment Model (Sanders, 1980) as a tool for determining the in-service needs of headteachers. A summary of the main ideas presented concludes this chapter.

Research Design

The purpose of this study was to determine what needs to be done to improve the effectiveness of in-service education for headteachers of government secondary schools in Harare Region. It focused on gathering information about the prevailing conditions and practices and the headteachers' attitudes toward in-service education.

In order to accomplish the purpose of the study, the descriptive research methodology was used. According to Verma and Beard (1981), the descriptive method of research is concerned with a clear definition of the problem and the collection of facts and opinions about the prevailing condition of things. Underscoring Verma and Beard's perception of the descriptive method of research, Babie (1986) observed that "much of social research is conducted to explore a topic, to provide a beginning familiarity with that topic. This purpose is typical when a researcher is examining a new interest" (p. 72).

Accordingly, the survey approach was considered appropriate because the research sought to find out from the headteachers of government secondary schools in Harare Region what needs to be done to improve the effectiveness of in-service education and to assess their attitudes towards in-service education. As Babie (1986) pointed out, "Surveys are particularly well suited to the study of individuals' attitudes" (p. 87). Furthermore, because the research involved collecting original data to describe a population too large to be observed directly, the survey approach was deemed most appropriate. Moreover, the questionnaire yielded data in the same form from all the respondents. This facilitated the measurement of attitudes and orientations among the 50 headteachers who participated in the study.

The survey method also involved the use of the Quadrant Assessment Model (QAM). The QAM depends on discrepancy analysis for the identification of in-service needs of educational personnel. It has been used for this purpose in the USA (Deros, 1975; Miller, 1979), Canada (Caldwell, Magnan, & Maynes, 1980; Sanders, 1980), and Tanzania (Msolla, 1993). This study provided an opportunity for the replication of Sanders' study. Some items, however, were modified to suit the Zimbabwean educational context.

Development and Administration of the Questionnaire

The data for this study were collected through a questionnaire. The questionnaire includes the following thematic categories from which the items were generated: (a) demographics; (b) needs assessment, with special attention being paid to curriculum and instruction, staff-pupil personnel functions of the headteacher, systemwide policies and operations, and school-community interface; (c) methods of in-service delivery; and (d) evaluation of the in-service courses.

In its final form, the questionnaire was divided into two parts; namely:

Part I, dealing with the headteachers' personal data and situational characteristics, and

Part II, focusing on in-service courses that the headteachers might have attended.

Part I: Personal Data

The purpose of this part of the questionnaire was to build up the profiles of headteachers in terms of their qualifications, status, gender, age category, the type of school they administered, and their length of service. This information was considered necessary in order to define the contexts in which headteachers worked; hence the inclusion of items 1-8 in the questionnaire.

Part II: In-Service Education Programs

Section I. Items 9-13 deal with the general aspects of in-service education courses organized for headteachers of government secondary schools in Harare Region.

The aspects covered include the duration of the courses, their timing, and the headteachers' perceptions of both. Verma (1984), Ikonne (1985), Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991), and Seyfarth (1991) observed that in-service education should be planned as a sustained package of activities rather than discrete events. The consensus among these writers and researchers was that one-shot courses are usually ineffective because more time is needed for participants to integrate the new practices into existing routines. Further, in-service education leaders should show sensitivity to the timing of these activities as some times are more preferable than others (Ikonne).

Section II: Needs Assessment. Of particular interest and relevance to this study was the matter of needs assessment. Successful in-service education activities are usually based on a thorough assessment of the needs of the consumers of in-service education. Wilson (1977), Sanders (1980), Verma (1984), Orlich (1989), Fitch and Kopp (1990), Oldroyd and Hall (1991), Lunenburg and Ornstein (1991), and Kinder and Harland (1991) maintained that a needs assessment and analysis should precede the planning and execution of in-service activities. This is to ensure that such activities are demand led. Thorough and accurate needs assessment enables organizers of in-service activities to discover the strengths of programs or personnel, identify perceived weaknesses in programs, identify "unmet" concerns, set priorities for future or immediate action, and share the general decision making among the various stakeholders.

Because of the centrality of needs assessment in determining the appropriateness and, consequently, the effectiveness of in-service education, a significant segment of the questionnaire is devoted to the identification of in-service needs and the extent of headteacher involvement in the assessment of these needs.

To facilitate the assessment of the needs of administrators in terms of the competencies they need to perform their role effectively, Stufflebeam (1993) suggested that their duties should be identified first, an approach that Lipham, Rankin, and Hoeh (1985) and Kimborough and Burkett (1990) had earlier adopted. The following are the critical areas of headteacher responsibility that are covered by the task statements included in the questionnaire:

1. Curriculum and instruction (items CI 1-CI 11). This refers to what is taught and how it is taught. It includes the supervision and evaluation of the teaching-learning process.

2. Staff personnel function (items SP 12-SP 28). Staff personnel functions of headteachers involve the identification of new staff, assignment of staff, staff orientation, evaluation of staff, and improvement of staff.

3. Pupil personnel function (items PP 29-PP 48). This deals with the academic, social, and emotional well-being of the pupils or students.

4. Resource management (items RM 49-RM 61). The success of a school depends very largely on the headteacher's leadership in acquiring and using appropriate human, monetary, and material resources.

5. Systemwide policies and operations (items PO 62-PO 71). Schools, as subsystems, have obligations towards the larger educational community. They have

to work closely with the district, regional, and central offices to facilitate the realization of the ministry's goals in the area of education.

6. School-community interface (items SC 72-SC 78). This task area stresses the importance of maintaining healthy school-community relations for the mutual benefit of the two.

These task areas, together with Sanders' (1980) inventory of task statements for principals of Grande Prairie School District #2357, provided the primary source of the task statements that were used in this research. Headteachers rated the importance of each task statement and how well they performed that task using a Likert scale of 1 (low) to 5 (high). Their responses were analyzed using the QAM, and their in-service needs were subsequently determined.

Delivery of In-Service Education

In addition to needs assessment, items 80 and 84 concern the delivery of in-service education. Ikonne (1985), Orlich (1989), Lunenburg and Ornstein (1991), and Kinder and Harland (1991) stressed the importance of using appropriate technologies for the delivery of in-service education.

Facilitators

Successful delivery of in-service education not only depends on the use of appropriate technologies, but also requires competent and credible presenters. Haydn-Jones (1986), Dadey and Harber (1991), and Fitch and Kopp (1990) advised that in-service education activities should be organized and conducted by competent and experienced presenters; hence the inclusion of item 81 to assess the headteachers' perceptions of the competency of the delivery of in-service education.

Evaluation of In-Service Programs

Orlich (1989) and Seyfarth (1991) asserted that if staff developers are to achieve and maintain high-quality in-service programs, they must collect trustworthy information and feedback to facilitate decision making; hence the inclusion of items 79 and 82, which deal with the evaluation of in-service activities.

Incentives

Item 83 on incentives and rewards was included because writers and researchers on in-service education (Fitch & Kopp, 1990; Ikonne, 1985; Kinder & Harland, 1991; Orlich, 1989; Small, 1982) recommended that those who partake in in-service education activities should be awarded rewards and incentives in recognition of their dedication and commitment.

Open-Ended Question

Question number 85 was included to give headteachers the opportunity to indicate important factors that could have been overlooked when items were generated. In order to expedite content analysis, headteachers were asked to write in the boxes provided three suggestions they considered critical for improving the effectiveness of in-service education. The provision of the three boxes restricted the amount of writing on the part of the headteachers.

Pilot Study

After the development of the questionnaire, a pilot study was undertaken. The pilot study was confined to four secondary school headteachers who were pursuing further studies at McGill University, Dalhousie University, and the Ontario Institute of Studies in Education. There were several reasons why a pilot study had to be instituted.

One of the reasons was the desire to determine the appropriateness of questionnaire items. This was important in view of the fact that the task statements used to determine the in-service needs of the headteachers were based on Sanders' (1980) research involving the principals of schools in an Alberta school system. These had to be modified to suit the Zimbabwean educational settings. Appropriateness of items was not the only issue. Adequacy of coverage had to be taken into account. In addition, it was felt that the pilot study would provide feedback on the clarity of the questionnaire items to obviate a situation in which one item could be interpreted differently by respondents. Respondents were also requested to identify if there were any items or questions that were double barrelled, threatening to the respondents, or biased. Leading questions were also to be identified and reworded accordingly. Thus the pilot study was a strategy for testing the validity of the instrument. Borg and Gall (1989) observed that a pilot study "often provides ideas, approaches, and clues not foreseen prior to the pilot study. Such ideas and clues greatly increase the chances of obtaining clear-cut findings in the main study" (p. 77).

Results of the Pilot Study

The pilot study yielded a number of very useful ideas which were taken into account in the development of the final version of the questionnaire.

1. The wording of a number of items had to be changed in the interest of clarity and brevity. Other questions were reworded to increase the number of options available to respondents, while others had to be collapsed into one to avoid unnecessary repetition.

2. Some task statements were dropped completely because they were not relevant to the Zimbabwean situation. For example, items relating to the recruitment

and selection of professional staff and the modification of the curriculum content were left out because these are centrally expedited.

3. Other questions had to be modified because, in their original form, it would have been difficult for the headteachers to respond because they did not have the relevant information. For example, the question

> How would you assess the facilitators responsible for the delivery of the in-service programs?
>
> 1. ___ Academically and professionally qualified
> 2. ___ Have the necessary experience
> 3. ___ Lack the requisite experience

was changed to:

> How satisfied are you with the facilitators responsible for the delivery of the in-service programs you have been involved in?
>
> 1. ___ Very dissatisfied
> 2. ___ Dissatisfied
> 3. ___ Mixed feelings
> 4. ___ Satisfied
> 5. ___ Very satisfied

4. Additional questions were also suggested. For example, it was felt that there should be a question or item to determine whether a school belonged to the former Group A or Group B category because of the fundamental differences in the philosophy that undergirds the operations of these schools.

5. Two headteachers felt that the questionnaire was too long. Considering that they were analyzing each item in terms of its clarity, relevance, and importance and the headteacher's ability to perform the specified tasks, it could have taken them some time to complete the questionnaire. However, considering the importance of the study, the fact that most items require a check mark to indicate a response, and that 30 items were not included in the final draft, the questionnaire was as long as it needed to be. Furthermore, the letter of transmittal (Appendix B) exhorted the headteachers to complete the questionnaire as judiciously and as meticulously as possible in order for them to derive maximum benefit from the study. Over and

above that, the questionnaire used by Sanders (1980) with principals in Alberta had more items than does the one used with headteachers in Harare Region, most of whom are university graduates who should not have problems in comprehending English, which is the medium of instruction in all schools in Zimbabwe.

6. One headteacher wondered whether headteachers could assess themselves honestly. Mouly (1970) exposed the limitations of self-report as a technique because individuals are usually poor judges of themselves. However, the promise of anonymity and confidentiality, the importance attached to the study, and the fact that researchers in other countries (Canada, Peru, Bolivia, USA, and Tanzania) have used more or less the same approach to determine the in-service needs of school administrators lend credence to the fact that headteachers can assess themselves objectively although they are subject to the frailties of human nature.

The incorporation of these ideas into the original draft culminated in the production of the questionnaire (Appendix E) that was used for collecting the data relevant to this study.

Administration of the Questionnaire

After the approval of the research by the Ethics Review Committee of the Department of Educational Administration at the University of Alberta, permission to carry out the research (Appendix A) was granted by the Ministry of Education and Culture, Zimbabwe. Each of the 51 headteachers of government secondary schools in Harare Region who were attending an in-service meeting on 28 May 1993 received a package containing a questionnaire, a letter of transmittal, and a stamped, self-addressed envelope. The headteachers were informed that the number in the box at the top of the questionnaire was for the purpose of keeping track of the return of the questionnaires. This number was obliterated on receipt of the questionnaire to ensure that responses would not be traceable to any particular respondent.

The research subjects comprised headteachers of secondary schools in Harare Region over which the Ministry of Education and Culture (MEC) had complete jurisdiction: Headteachers of these schools are appointed by the MEC on the basis of seniority and merit, the MEC is responsible for their supervision and staff development, and budgets for these schools and the auditing of their accounts are the responsibility of the MEC. The other 24 secondary schools in Harare Region were not involved in the study because they are under the jurisdiction of religious denominations or boards of governors. The MEC appoints headteachers of these schools at the recommendation of the religious denominations or boards of governors, the MEC does not audit accounts from these schools, and headteachers of these schools are accountable to their responsible authorities. The inclusion of headteachers from schools with such disparities would have threatened the validity of the study.

It took two letters (Appendixes C and D) and a visit to the "defaulting" schools for 50 of the 51 questionnaires to be returned.

Data Analysis

The primary mode of analysis was the computation of frequencies, percentages, and means, and the discrepancy analysis of the headteachers' responses using the Quadrant Assessment Model.

Quadrant Assessment Model

The Quadrant Assessment Model (Figure 1) was used to identify the in-service needs of headteachers.

The headteachers rated each task statement twice: In the first column, under the heading "Importance of the Task for the Headteacher," the headteachers indicated how important a task was to them; and in the second column, under the heading "Current Ability of the Headteacher to Perform the Task," the headteachers rated

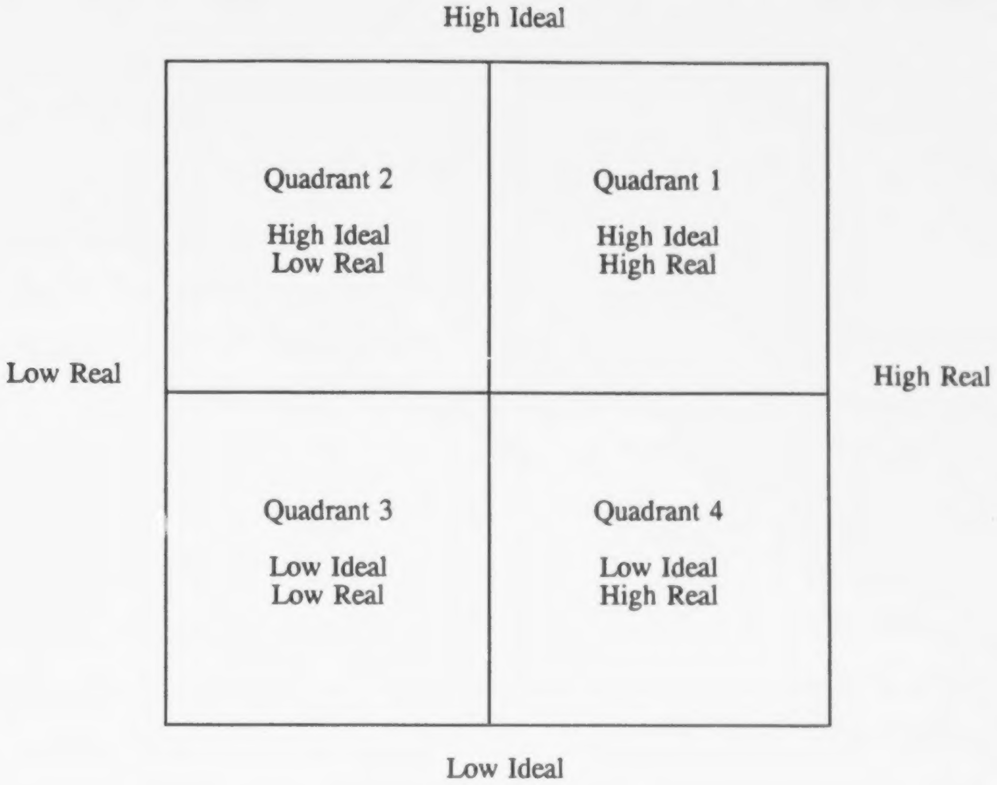
High Ideal
Quadrant 2
High Ideal
Low Real
Quadrant 1
High Ideal
High Real
Low Real
High Real
Quadrant 3
Low Ideal
Low Real
Quadrant 4
Low Ideal
High Real
Low Ideal

Figure 1. Quadrant assessment model (Sanders, 1980, p. 44).

their current ability to perform the task. A 5-point Likert scale from 1 (low) to 5 (high) was provided under each heading to facilitate rating. According to Sanders (1980), in rating these task statements, the headteachers provided both a measure of the importance of each task statement as an ideal or desired outcome and a measure of the real or actual accomplishment at each task. After the rating the following procedures were followed:

1. The mean score for each of the task statements was computed.

2. The mean score of all the means of the task statements was determined. This mean score of all the means was used as the cut-off point. In using the mean score, one is aware of the sensitivity of the mean to extreme scores which may distort the picture.

3. The discrepancies between the "ideal" and the "real" assessments were used to assign task statements to the four quadrants shown in Figure 1.

Quadrant 1. Statements with high scores in both the "ideal" and "real" dimensions were placed in this quadrant. These statements indicated the tasks which the headteachers regarded as being important and were performing well. Such tasks would normally have been the focus of preservice training where it exists.

Quadrant 2. This quadrant comprises those task statements with high scores on the ideal dimension, but low scores on the real dimension. These statements reflect tasks that are considered important but are not being done or performed well in practice. They thus indicate the in-service needs of headteachers and should therefore form the basis for long- or short-range in-service programs.

Quadrant 3. Task statements with low scores in both dimensions were placed in this quadrant. Tasks described by these statements were considered relatively unimportant and did not receive undue emphasis.

Quadrant 4. This quadrant carries task statements with low scores on the ideal dimension, but high scores on the real dimension. Tasks reflected by these statements were seen as unimportant but were being done well. Sanders (1980) advised that these tasks should not be ignored because they may have implications for time management.

Summary

The descriptive method of research was considered appropriate for this exploratory study that aimed at gathering information on the current in-service practices and the attitudes of headteachers to these practices.

Data were collected through a questionnaire whose items were generated from such thematic categories as demographics, needs assessment, methods of in-service delivery, and course-evaluation procedures.

To ensure the validity and reliability of the research instrument, a pilot study was undertaken. The results therefrom led to significant changes in the structure and content of the questionnaire.

The data were subsequently analyzed through the computation of frequencies, percentages, and means. Headteacher in-service needs were identified through the use of the Quadrant Assessment Model, which depends on the analysis of the discrepancy between the ideal and the real.

The major findings of the study and their interpretation constitute the substance of the ensuing chapter.

Chapter 4

Presentation and Interpretation of Data

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine what needs to be done to improve the effectiveness of in-service education for headteachers of government secondary schools in Harare Region. Accordingly, data were collected through a survey research involving the use of questionnaires.

The response rate, the characteristics of the respondents, and the major findings and their discussion are presented in this chapter. A summary focusing on the major findings concludes the chapter.

Response Rate

As shown in Table 1, the rate of response was 98%, achieved after two reminders and a visit to the nonrespondents. However, one headteacher did not respond.

Table 1

Headteachers' Response Rate

	Expected response	Actual response	Percentage of response
Response rate after despatch	51	20	39.2
Response rate after first reminder		15	29.4
Response rate after second reminder and a visit		15	29.4
Total		50	98.0

The rate at which the headteachers submitted their completed questionnaires was illustrative of one of the most persistent problems with questionnaire studies: the possibility of a high rate of nonresponse. Wiersma (1986), Babie (1986), and Ary, Jacobs, and Razavieh (1990) maintained that the validity of a survey research involving questionnaires depends on the response rate. To boost the response rate to 75%-90%, which they considered acceptable, they suggested that at least two reminders should be sent to the prospective respondents. This approach, together with a personal visit to the headteachers concerned, boosted the response rate to 98%.

Characteristics of the Respondents

Part 1 of the questionnaire deals with the headteachers' personal data: demographics, educational qualifications, the type of school for which the headteachers had responsibility, and the headteachers' work experience. Table 2 presents a summary of the headteachers' profiles. The major characteristics of the headteachers were as follows:

1. The majority of the headteachers, 46 (92%) had at least a bachelor's degree. Thirty-six of them (72%) had over five years of administrative experience.

2. Thirty-nine (79.6%) headteachers were substantive, whereas 10 (20.4%) were acting headteachers. One headteacher did not indicate his/her status.

3. The majority of the headteachers (80%) were male, with only 20% being female.

4. Forty-seven headteachers (94%) were aged 40 years and over, with only 2 (4%) headteachers being 60 years and over.

5. The majority of the headteachers (64%) were in charge of the Former Group B schools, whereas only 36% of them were heads of Former Group A schools.

6. All the schools whose headteachers responded to the questionnaire were government schools, with 38 (76%) of them being day schools and 12 (24%) being boarding.

Table 2

Characteristics of Respondents

		f	%
Level of education	STC	2	4.0
	T1	2	4.0
	Bachelor's degree	42	84.0
	Master's degree	4	8.0
	Total	50	100.0
Status	Substantive headteacher	39	79.6
	Acting headteacher	10	20.4
	No answer	1	Missing
	Total	50	100.0
Gender	Female	10	20.0
	Male	40	80.0
	Total	50	100.0
Age	30-39 years	3	6.0
	40-49 years	29	58.0
	50-59 years	16	32.0
	60 years and over	2	4.0
	Total	50	100.0
Type of school	Day	38	76.0
	Day and boarding	12	24.0
	Total	50	100.0
Category of school	Former Group A	18	36.0
	Former Group B	32	64.0
	Total	50	100.0
Length of service as headteacher or acting headteacher	1-4 years	14	28.0
	5-9 years	21	42.0
	10 years	5	10.0
	Over 10 years	10	20.0
	Total	50	100.0

The data reveal that the majority of the headteachers of government secondary schools in Harare Region are well qualified and experienced and that female headteachers constitute only 20% of those who took part in the study.

In-Service Education

Part II of the questionnaire focused on the in-service education courses that the headteachers had attended. The data collected were analyzed and interpreted using the subquestions raised in Chapter 1 and the Quadrant Assessment Model.

Subquestion 1

Are headteachers of government secondary schools in Harare Region involved in the assessment of their in-service needs?

Information on this subquestion was obtained by asking headteachers whether they had taken part in in-service courses and whether they had been involved in the precourse needs assessment. Headteachers were further asked to suggest ways of improving the effectiveness of in-service education. To determine whether in-service needs existed, headteachers were requested to rate the importance of 78 task statements and to indicate their ability to perform the tasks on a 5-point Likert-type scale. The mean scores of all the task statements and the overall mean of all the mean scores in the "Importance" and "Ability" categories were computed. Using the overall mean as the cut-off point, task statements were assigned to the four quadrants to determine the in-service needs of the headteachers.

Findings.

1. All 50 (100%) headteachers indicated that they had attended in-service courses organized by the regional office.

2. Only 8 (16%) headteachers had been involved in precourse needs assessment. Forty-two (84%) headteachers had not taken part in needs assessment.

3. In responding to an open-ended question on what needs to be done to improve the effectiveness of in-service education, 33 (66%) headteachers suggested that they should be consulted about their in-service education and training needs.

4. Quadrant assessment model: Figure 2 summarizes the distribution of the task statements within the four quadrants.

Quadrant 1. Statements in this quadrant indicate tasks which the headteachers regarded as important and which they felt that they were performing well. The following task statements were assigned to this quadrant:

CI 2	Establishes subject departments to facilitate curriculum delivery.
CI 3	Works with teachers in assessing the effectiveness of teaching methods.
CI 4	Plans a program, including a timetable, which best matches time, space, staff, students, and subject matter.
CI 9	Solicits suggestions from teachers when designing the curriculum.
CI 11	Works with teachers and students to establish a good school climate.
SP 13	Observes teachers in classrooms to assist in evaluating teaching practices.
SP 14	Encourages staff to recognize and commend worthwhile accomplishments of students.
SP 18	Interprets policies, regulations, procedures, and priorities to staff.
SP 21	Communicates to staff the importance of professionalism and development as a professional.
SP 22	Plans and maintains a system of communication with staff.
SP 23	Plans and conducts staff meetings.
SP 25	Recognizes and commends worthwhile accomplishments of staff.
SP 27	Provides for orientation of new staff.
SP 28	Establishes and maintains good working relationships with and among staff.
PP 38	Maintains student records.

Quadrant 2 (High Ideal-Low Real) SP 19 SP 24 PP 33 RM 53 PO 71 PP 35	Quadrant 1 (High Ideal-High Real) CI 2 CI 3 CI 4 CI 9 CI 11 SP 13 SP 14 SP 18 SP 21 SP 22 SP 23 SP 25 SP 27 PP 28 PP 38 PP 40 PP 42 PP 45 PP 47 PP 48 RM 49 RM 51 RM 52 RM 54 RM 55 RM 56 RM 57 RM 58 RM 59 RM 60 RM 61 PO 62 PO 63 PO 65 PO 67 PO 68 PO 69 SC 72 SC 73
Quadrant 3 (Low Ideal-Low Real) CI 1 CI 5 CI 6 CI 8 CI 10 SP 12 SP 16 SP 17 SP 20 SP 26 SP 29 PP 30 PP 31 PP 32 PP 34 PP 36 PP 37 PP 39 PP 41 PP 46 SC 74 SC 75 SC 76 SC 77 SC 78	Quadrant 4 (Low Ideal-High Real) CI 7 SP 15 PP 43 PP 44 RM 50 PO 64 PO 66 PO 70

Code

CI = Curriculum and instruction
SP = Staff personnel functions
PP = Pupil personnel functions
RM = Resource management
PO = Systemwide policies and operations
SC = School-community interface

Figure 2. Quadrant assessment matrix for the headteachers' perceptions of the level of importance of tasks and their ability to perform them.

PP 40	Recognizes outstanding student achievement.
PP 42	Takes action on discipline matters requiring attention.
PP 45	Establishes a system for communication with students.
PP 47	Establishes policies and procedures for student discipline.
PP 48	Enrolls students.
RM 49	Prepares statements and reports required by supervisors.
RM 51	Makes recommendations for the improvement of physical facilities.
RM 52	Makes decisions about instructional materials and equipment subject to the constraints of the budget.
RM 54	Purchases services and materials in accordance with the policies, regulations, and procedures of the Ministry of Education and Culture.
RM 55	Provides information for financial audits.
RM 56	Uses budgetary guidelines to structure school activities.
RM 57	Administers the school budget in accordance with the policies, regulations, and procedures of the Ministry of Education and Culture.
RM 58	Maintains a bookkeeping and accounting system in accordance with the policies, regulations, and procedures of the Ministry.
RM 59	Establishes procedures for acquiring and managing school-generated funds.
RM 60	Establishes procedures for the collection and utilization of fees in accordance with the policies, regulations, and procedures of the Ministry of Education and Culture.
RM 61	Maintains inventories (registers) of resources.
PO 62	Organizes school staff to accomplish school goals.
PO 63	Ensures that school goals and objectives are consistent with the goals of the Ministry of Education and Culture.
PO 65	Recommends staff for appointment as officers and for purposes of promotion.
PO 67	Clarifies decision-making responsibilities for subordinates.
PO 68	Utilizes services of subject specialists.
PO 69	Implements the Ministry's policies affecting the school.

SC 72 Develops communication channels with parents and the community.

SC 73 Promotes positive school image in the community.

In situations in which headteachers receive formal education and training in school administration, the tasks reflected by these statements would have been the focus of preservice education. However, in Zimbabwe, where such formal training does not exist, the headteachers could have acquired the skills through either hands-on experience or as a result of the in-service activities organized and conducted by the regional office.

Quadrant 2. Of particular interest to this study are the task statements that were placed in this quadrant. These statements indicate tasks that headteachers regarded as important. However, they felt that they were not performing them well. This therefore means that these task statements have implications for in-service education. Below are the task statements that were placed in this quadrant:

SP 19 Assists teachers in developing effective practices for achieving institutional goals.

SP 24 Develops a schedule for the supervision of student work.

PP 33 Plans and organizes a guidance and counselling program for students.

RM 53 Prepares a budget in accordance with the policies, regulations, and procedures of the Ministry of Education and Culture.

PO 71 Provides for health, welfare, and safety of students and staff.

PP 35 Implements a system to achieve regular attendance by students.

The placement of these task statements in Quadrant 2 suggests that headteachers have in-service needs relating to staff personnel functions, pupil personnel functions, resource management, and systemwide policies and operations. No task statements referring to curriculum and instruction and school-community interface were perceived to have implications for in-service education.

Quadrant 3. Statements in this quadrant indicate tasks which the headteachers considered relatively unimportant; and, consequently, they were not receiving undue attention. Listed below are the task statements that were placed in this quadrant:

CI 1	Takes into account student interest when designing the school curriculum.
CI 5	Designs a curriculum which meets individual learner needs.
CI 6	Facilitates instructional approaches which complement classroom teaching; for example, field trips, student exchanges, educational tours.
CI 8	Involves parents, teachers, and students in planning the educational programs for the school.
CI 10	Assesses curriculum effectiveness.
SP 12	Assigns decision-making tasks to staff in keeping with their interest, expertise, and organizational responsibility.
SP 16	Establishes a system for training teachers in the use of a variety of media; for example, audio-visual equipment, library resources.
SP 17	Establishes procedures for staff participation in decision making concerning school policies.
SP 20	Plans professional-development activities for self and others on the basis of an assessment of needs.
SP 26	Provides personal and career counseling for staff.
PP 29	Establishes procedures for interpreting the evaluation of students to parents and teachers.
PP 30	Establishes priorities among student problems needing solution.
PP 31	Evaluates co-curricular activities.
PP 32	Schedules times to be available for informal interaction with parents.
PP 34	Collects follow-up information on former students to improve services provided by the school.
PP 36	Evaluates the effectiveness of student personnel services.
PP 37	Supports co-curricular programs by active participation and attendance.
PP 39	Makes available to students occupational and educational information derived from community and professional sources.
PP 40	Recognizes outstanding student achievement.

PP 46 Establishes criteria for placement of students in school programs.
SC 74 Utilizes community input in school decisions.
SC 75 Facilitates adult-education programs.
SC 76 Administers community use of school buildings and facilities.
SC 77 Utilizes community resources in the school programs.
SC 78 Conveys community expectations to staff.

Most task statements placed in this quadrant were on staff personnel functions, pupil personnel functions, and school-community interface. They were perceived as being low in both the ideal and real dimensions. In addition, six task statements on curriculum and instruction were placed in this quadrant because the content and delivery of the curriculum are centrally determined. Moreover, the sheer size of the schools precludes any possibility of designing curricula that meet individual learner needs. Finally, limited teacher and parental involvement in the decision-making processes may be a reflection of the bureaucratic nature of schools in Harare Region, a phenomenon that characterizes schools in Zimbabwe.

Quadrant 4. Statements in this quadrant have low scores on the ideal dimension and high scores on the real dimension. Headteachers regarded the tasks reflected by statements in this quadrant as less important; but, all the same, they performed them well. These tasks are potential items for in-service activities because they have implications for how time is being managed. The following task statements were assigned to this quadrant.

CI 7 Works with teachers to establish criteria for student assessment.
SP 15 Facilitates teacher access to students' records.
PP 43 Involves students in school affairs.
PP 44 Works with teachers to establish a comprehensive student-activity program.
RM 50 Projects staff needs.

PO 64 Utilizes the Ministry's recommendations in revising educational plans.

PO 66 Provides information requested by supervisors and/or researchers.

PO 70 Identifies procedures for monitoring and controlling school visitors.

The following are the major observations that emerged from the quadrant analysis:

1. The headteachers rated 45 task statements (57.7%) as reflecting tasks that they considered important; hence their placement in Quadrants 1 and 2.

2. Thirty-three task statements (42.3%) were perceived as reflecting tasks that were considered relatively less important; and, accordingly, they were assigned to Quadrants 3 and 4.

3. The headteachers perceived themselves as performing well 47 (60.1%) of the 78 tasks. The placement of 47 task statements in Quadrants 1 and 4 reflects this perception. These task statements were distributed as follows:

Area of Headteacher Responsibility	Number of Task Statements
Curriculum and instruction	6
Staff personnel functions	10
Pupil personnel functions	8
Resource management	12
Systemwide policies and operations	9
School-community interface	2
Total	47

4. As illustrated in Table 3, task statements placed in Quadrant 2 had a higher overall mean score in the "Importance" category as compared to the overall mean score for the "Ability" category. The fact that the "performance mean" (3.87) was lower than the "importance mean" (4.49) suggests the existence of areas for in-service

education. This suggestion is further supported by the fact that 66% of the headteachers felt that they should be consulted about their in-service needs. Furthermore, the continued existence of "unmet" needs perhaps stems from the fact that 84% of the headteachers had not been involved in the needs assessment for the courses that they had attended. Noninvolvement of headteachers in needs assessment for courses from which they are supposed to benefit compromises the effectiveness of such courses.

Table 3

Importance and Performance Means for Task Statements Placed in Quadrant 2

Task statement		Importance mean (Overall mean = 4.49)	Ability mean (Overall mean = 3.87)
SP 19	Assists teachers in developing effective practices for achieving institutional goals.	4.52	3.78
SP 24	Develops a schedule for the supervision of student work.	4.55	3.80
PP 33	Plans and organizes a guidance and counselling program for students.	4.50	3.52
RM 53	Prepares a budget in accordance with the policies, regulations, and procedures of the Ministry of Education and Culture.	4.60	3.66
PO 71	Provides for health, welfare, and safety of students and staff.	4.64	3.82
PP 35	Implements a system to achieve regular attendance by students.	4.58	3.74

Effective in-service education should be based on thoroughly researched needs assessment. Such a needs assessment should be a collaborative effort of the providers and recipients of in-service education. Orlich (1989), Fitch and Kopp (1990), Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991), and Kinder and Harland (1991) maintained that in-service education should be driven by the needs of those for whom it is intended. Similarly, Lunenburg and Ornstein (1991), Tranfield, Skok, and McLaughlin (1991), and Oldroyd and Hall (1991) advised that a needs assessment and analysis should precede the planning of in-service programs. Failure to do so results in in-service programs that lack focus and direction. Such programs fail to address the needs of the program recipients, as demonstrated by the fact that 10 years after the inception of in-service education, headteachers of secondary schools in Harare Region still have in-service needs that have not been addressed. This mismatch between the headteachers' in-service needs and the program content often results from the inability to diagnose correctly the in-service needs of the headteachers. It was therefore not surprising that 66% of the headteachers suggested in an open-ended questionnaire item that they should be consulted about their in-service requirements.

Involving headteachers in needs identification would make in-service education more relevant to their needs. It would also empower the headteachers by giving them a voice and a sense of ownership. Furthermore, in-service education activities developed from the headteachers' needs would avoid the mismatch between their needs and the content of course-based models of in-service provision. It appears that this mismatch still plagues the provision of in-service education in Harare Region because headteachers continue to have "unmet" needs, and the fact that 66% of them suggested greater consultation of headteachers in needs assessment is instructive.

Subquestion 2

Does the content of in-service courses reflect the in-service needs of headteachers?

To obtain the information relevant to this subquestion, headteachers were requested to indicate whether the in-service courses that they had attended addressed the tasks reflected in the statements that they had rated as important, but which they felt that they were not performing well.

Findings.

1. Five (11.4%) headteachers felt that the tasks were not covered.
2. Fourteen (31.8%) headteachers indicated that the tasks were not well covered.
3. Fifteen (34.1%) headteachers had mixed feelings.
4. Only seven (15.9%) headteachers felt that the tasks had been covered.
5. Three (6.8%) headteachers asserted that the tasks had been well covered.
6. Six headteachers offered no opinion.

These data reveal that the majority of the headteachers were of the opinion that the in-service courses that they had attended did not focus on their in-service needs.

If in-service education is to succeed in equipping headteachers with the requisite knowledge, skills, and attitudes, the content of the in-service activities should address the needs identified by the headteachers themselves and reflected in the training objectives. Bishop (1976) asserted that the needs of the participants indicated in the training objectives should find expression in the content of in-service programs. This enables participants to feel that the content of the program is theirs. Similarly, Fitch and Kopp (1990) asserted that the internalization factor, the feeling that "this is my program," is paramount to the successful implementation of in-service programs.

In the case of headteachers of secondary schools in Harare Region, they felt that the courses were either irrelevant or repetitious because they were not based on properly assessed needs. This attitude and the consequent alienation it breeds compromise the effectiveness of in-service education. In the words of one headteacher, "It appears in-service education courses are conducted with one purpose in mind—the desire to exhaust funds set aside for courses to prevent their reversion to treasury at the end of the financial year." Unless thorough needs assessment involving headteachers precedes the conduct of in-service education activities, the relevance and appropriateness of such activities will continue to be questioned by those who are supposed to be their beneficiaries.

Subquestion 3

What methodologies are used to deliver in-service courses for headteachers?

The requisite information was elicited by asking headteachers to indicate how frequently a variety of delivery methods were used. Further, in an open-ended question headteachers were requested to prefer suggestions for improving the effectiveness of in-service education.

Findings. Table 4 summarizes the headteachers' ratings of how frequently the various methods were used.

Table 4

Methods of In-Service Delivery

		f	%
Methods	Lectures	41	82.0
	Group discussions	28	56.0
	Simulations	9	18.0
	Case studies	3	6.0
	Role play	2	4.0

The majority of the headteachers, 41 (82%), indicated that lectures constituted the primary mode of in-service delivery, with group discussions coming second. Simulations, case studies, and role play are very rarely used.

Joyce and Showers (1980), Orlich (1989), and Lunenburg and Ornstein (1991) stressed the importance of aligning the methodology to the desired outcome or matching the technique of delivery with the training objectives derived from identified needs.

In Harare Region it appears that there is too much dependence on the lecture method. Admittedly, the lecture method has certain virtues about it: First, a large body of facts and information can be exposed in a short time. Secondly, the lecture method is an economical management-training method in terms of human-power costs and support materials. Thirdly, it can be used to train participants to acquire the skills of attentive listening and logical analysis. Fourthly, one lecturer can reach a very large audience at one time. Fifthly, it allows the incorporation of other methods and techniques. Above all, both the lecturer and the audience in a session are trained to exercise the utmost self-discipline in time, space, and behavior management. Thus, in the hands of a trained and innovative facilitator, the lecture method has tremendous potential as a strategy for in-service delivery.

According to UNESCO (1992) handbook on training methods, despite the lecture method's potential, it has many disadvantages and limitations which become manifest in the hands of an inexperienced presenter. There is very little interaction between the participants and the presenter. The audience, which should be of active learners, often becomes one of passive learners. Yet, as Fitch and Kopp (1990) observed, learning is not a spectator sport. Daresh and Playko (1992) concurred with Fitch and Kopp when they asserted that "administrators prefer in-service education activities that make use of active participant involvement rather than one way communication techniques such as lectures" (p. 133). Young (1987) made the same observation when he argued that, because educators are adults, providers of in-service education should be sensitive to how adults learn. Finally, one other weakness of the lecture method is that educational objectives in the affective domain, and, in particular, values and attitudes, are difficult to acquire and internalize through the lecture method because of limited opportunities for interpersonal interaction.

There is therefore a need for a shift from training through the theory- and knowledge-packed lectures to training and developing administrative skills through practice. This shift recognizes that adults bring to a learning situation their extensive experience on which new learning can be built. The principle of active involvement is a major rationale put forward by UNESCO (1992) for the use of nontraditional, participative training methods. It is argued that the deeper the involvement, the higher the motivation and therefore the greater the degree of learning. In general, motivation, a key principle of learning, is greater with nonconventional approaches than with lectures.

The case study is one of the many nonconventional training approaches which are currently in use for training school administrators. This method encourages the participants to observe issues and diagnose problems, formulate solutions, decide, and communicate the decisions to colleagues for further discussion. Similarly, the in-basket method, which embodies elements of such approaches as simulation and role play, is a potent strategy for giving participants practical experience, knowledge, and skills. The administrator is assigned a role which he/she must act out as a real-life incumbent would. Such a role is composed principally of situations and events involving the taking of decisions, the solving of problems, and the communication of actions and thoughts to both superordinates and subordinates.

Self-instruction and programmed-instruction methods are also effective in equipping headteachers with the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that they need for the effective performance of their duties. These personalized systems of instruction allow the "trainees" to proceed at their own pace according to their ability, and therefore thoroughness in the mastery of the subject matter is achieved. Learners are systematically guided to acquire the desired knowledge and skills incrementally. Furthermore, these approaches are economical in that a few expert trainers can prepare the materials and mass-produce them.

It is therefore essential that appropriate and varied methods should be used for the delivery of in-service education. A multifaceted approach that is driven by the goals and objectives of the in-service activities is likely to yield better results than religious adherence to one approach such as the lecture method.

Subquestion 4

What incentives are used to encourage headteachers to partake in in-service education?

To obtain information on this subquestion, the headteachers were requested to indicate the incentives that were frequently used to encourage them to partake in in-service education. The headteachers were further asked in an open-ended question to suggest what should be done to ensure the effectiveness of in-service education.

Findings. The findings are presented in Table 5.

The majority of the headteachers, 38 (77.6%) indicated that no incentives were being used to encourage headteachers to partake in in-service education activities. Furthermore, 18 (36%) headteachers suggested in response to an open-ended questionnaire item that those who attend in-service education activities should be rewarded. Seven (14.3%) headteachers expressed their disdain for the use of compulsion as a strategy for ensuring attendance at in-service meetings.

If in-service education for headteachers is to achieve its goals, it is imperative that a means be devised to reward headteachers beyond the natural satisfaction accruing from enhanced expertise. Small (1982), Ikonne (1985), and Fitch and Kopp

Table 5

Incentives for Participation in In-Service Education

		f	%
Incentives	Additional qualifications	2	4.1
	Promotion	2	4.1
	None	38	77.6
	Other	7	14.3
	No answer	1	Missing
	Total	50	100.0

(1991) contended that those who engage in in-service programs in order to improve their job performance should be rewarded. The rewards and incentives can be either monetary or nonmonetary. In situations where monetary rewards may be a burden to the fisc, such nonmonetary rewards as release time for in-service activities, treating in-service attendance as part of the headteachers' contractual obligation, specific stipends for participating in a specific in-service activity, career enhancement, certificates of attendance, invitation to recognition luncheons, and attendance at selected conferences at the expense of the organizer may provide overt recognition of those who attend in-service education programs. Orlich (1989) supported the notion of rewards and incentives when he argued that the absence of a clearly defined system of rewards and incentives for those who take part in in-service education can adversely affect the morale of participants, thereby limiting the effectiveness of in-service activities. Ikonne's research findings confirmed the assertion that rewards and incentives, both intrinsic and extrinsic, should constitute an integral part of the in-service package. That 36% of the headteachers suggested the institutionalization of rewards and incentives as a strategy for improving in-service education demonstrates their concern for some form of appreciation by those who organize and conduct in-service courses. It is therefore imperative for in-service leaders in Harare Region to devise humane ways of motivating the headteachers to continue partaking in in-service activities. Recognition and acknowledgement of efforts aimed at self-improvement would go a long way toward uplifting the sagging spirits of headteachers.

Subquestion 5

How satisfied are headteachers with the competence of the facilitators who deliver their in-service education?

To address this issue, the headteachers were requested to indicate their level of satisfaction by selecting a description that best summarized their perception. In an open-ended item headteachers were asked to make suggestions for improving the effectiveness of in-service education.

Findings. Although 26 (52%) headteachers were satisfied with the calibre of the facilitators, 22 (44%) headteachers had mixed feelings, with 2 (4%) headteachers expressing dissatisfaction. Furthermore, in an open-ended question, 19 (38%) headteachers suggested that in-service education should be organized and conducted by competent, experienced, and credible facilitators.

It therefore appears that the headteachers did have some lingering concern about the competence of the facilitators and, consequently, the quality of in-service delivery.

The calibre of the facilitators is very crucial in determining the success of in-service education. Orlich (1989) pointed out that facilitators should be knowledgeable and experienced because, when educators attend a workshop or course, they expect a professionally conducted performance, not excuses. Of interest to participants is the facilitators' innovativeness, creativity, ability to achieve in-service objectives using a variety of methods, and how the facilitators relate to the participants. Haydn-Jones (1986) was unequivocal in his assertion that for in-service education programs to be effective, they should be "led by individuals who are credible in the eyes of the participants, knowledgeable in the content area, and skilled in educational processes" (p. 16). Recognizing the importance of having competent facilitators, Dadey and Harber (1991) and the World Bank (1990) suggested that those who conduct in-service education must themselves undergo training in school administration. Such training, the World Bank argued, should encompass facilitation techniques, group dynamics, interpersonal skills, workshop planning and implementation, and monitoring and evaluation. Not only did 38% of the headteachers suggest that in-service education should be handled by competent and experienced facilitators, but they also went further to propose that experienced headteachers themselves should be coopted as facilitators or resource persons because they have the wisdom born out of experience.

It is therefore essential for Harare Region to show sensitivity to the calibre of facilitators when hiring or engaging their services. Maximum use should be made of the talent that abounds in headteachers, particularly in situations where there is a dearth of facilitators with headship experience.

Subquestion 6

When are in-service education courses evaluated?

The information that addressed this subquestion was obtained by requesting headteachers to indicate the time when most courses were evaluated. The headteachers also indicated their preferences regarding the most opportune time for evaluating courses in response to an open-ended question.

Findings. The majority of the headteachers, 39 (78.0%), indicated that evaluation occurred at the end of the in-service activity.

Six (12%) headteachers indicated that evaluation took place at the end of each session, with 5 (10%) headteachers intimating that evaluation took place at the headteachers' work places.

Six (12%) headteachers suggested that primacy should be placed on impact evaluation.

These data reveal that summative evaluation is very widely used in Harare Region, almost to the exclusion of other forms of evaluation. Verma (1984) maintained that both formative and summative evaluation are necessary in any program evaluation if staff developers are to achieve and maintain high-quality programs. Formative evaluation focuses on what happens during implementation and helps review the effectiveness of ongoing procedures; summative evaluation, on the other hand, occurs at the end of a program and measures the overall effectiveness of the program. Impact evaluation is essential because it allows providers of in-service education the opportunity to assess the full impact of the in-service activities on the educator's work environment. The use of these three types of evaluation would ensure that the reactions and perceptions of headteachers are obtained and adjustments made as needed. Thus evaluation, whatever form it takes, is a useful tool for determining the strengths and weaknesses of in-service activities and assessing the viability of programs. Such evaluation data can be gathered through questionnaires, interviews, and observer reports.

Although the headteachers indicated that in-service activities were evaluated, they expressed concern about the failure by the organizers of in-service education to implement their recommendations and suggestions. As evidence, they cited topics such as "school supervision" that appeared regularly in spite of the fact that they felt that this topic had been exhausted. Conversely, the headteachers felt that some of the topics that they suggested—for example, "financial management"—were never included in the in-service programs that they had attended. They therefore regarded program evaluation as a ritual through which they are required to go. This compromises the quality of the data that evaluation yields.

If in-service activities are to be effective, not only should they be evaluated, but the suggestions and recommendations made must also be taken seriously. This means implementing the suggestions and eliminating weaknesses identified by the headteachers.

Subquestion 7

What can be done to make in-service education courses for headteachers more effective?

For systematic collection of the relevant information, the headteachers were provided with three boxes in which they were expected to write three suggestions that they considered critical for improving the effectiveness of in-service courses. Content analysis was used to identify the main themes emerging from the mass of information that the headteachers generated, notwithstanding the restriction imposed by the provision of limited space in the boxes.

Findings. Table 6 presents the major suggestions made by the headteachers to improve the effectiveness of in-service education.

Most of the suggestions in Table 6 have been referred to in the various sections on "Findings." However, three suggestions need some elucidation.

Thirty-eight (76%) headteachers, in responding to an item on the appropriateness of the duration of in-service activities, felt that the average duration of three to four days was long enough. However, they felt that these activities tended to be too few and far between. They expressed the desire that in-service activities should be sustained over a long period to facilitate the internalization of the new ideas, skills, and attitudes, thus emphasizing the process nature of in-service education as a strategy for staff development. Verma (1984) supported this view when he

Table 6

Suggestions for Improving In-Service Education

		Number of headteachers	Percentage
1.	Involvement of headteachers in needs assessment	33	66
2.	Need for competent presenters	19	38
3.	Need for rewards and incentives	18	36
4.	Use of appropriate and varied methods	15	30
5.	Adequate time for in-service activities	13	26
6.	Need for evaluation and follow-up	6	12
7.	Suitable venue	5	10
8.	Need for substantive appointment of headteachers	1	2

asserted that most educators are unhappy with the one-shot, fragmented type of staff development. They prefer staff development that is continuous and relevant to their jobs. Endorsing this perspective, Kinder and Harland (1991) posited that in-service provision should be planned as a sustained package of activities rather than as discrete events.

Therefore the challenge that faces providers of in-service education is to ensure that programs are of adequate duration and are sustained over a long period to bring about the professional growth and renewal of school administrators.

The headteachers also felt that in-service education courses should be held at venues with suitable facilities that allow the in-service leaders to organize courses or workshops with a mix of lectures, plenary and small-group discussions, open forums, and panel discussions. In the words of one headteacher, "Venues should befit the office of the headteacher." These concerns are real, especially in situations where hotels are used as venues for in-service activities. The welfare of headteachers deserves meticulous attention.

In addition, some headteachers suggested that the appointment of acting headteachers as substantive heads would enhance the effectiveness of in-service education. Because of the security of tenure, substantive headteachers would be more committed and dedicated to in-service education than acting headteachers are. At the time of the research, 20% of the respondents were acting heads. In-servicing such headteachers who may revert to their teaching positions should they fail to be appointed as substantive heads does not represent good investment in human capital in the short term.

Summary

This chapter has dealt with data analysis and interpretation. Below is a summary of the major findings.

Needs Assessment

While all the headteachers, 50 (100%), had attended in-service education courses, only 8 (16%) were involved in the assessment of their in-service needs. Forty-two (84%) headteachers indicated that they had not been involved in needs assessment. In addition, 33 (66%) headteachers suggested that they should be consulted about their in-service needs. Furthermore, the headteachers indicated that they had "unmet" needs by rating as important six task statements which reflected tasks that they also felt that they were not performing well. The subsequent placement of these task statements in Quadrant 2 and the fact that the performance mean (3.87) was lower than the importance mean (4.49) indicated the existence of in-service needs.

Content of In-Service Courses

Nineteen (43.2%) headteachers indicated that the content of the in-service courses that they had attended did not address their in-service needs. When one takes into account that 15 (34.1%) headteachers had mixed feelings, the message that emerges is that the content of the in-service courses did not focus on the needs of the headteachers. This weakness can be traced back to the lack of headteacher involvement in needs assessment.

Methodologies for In-Service Delivery

Forty-one (82%) headteachers indicated that the most widely used method for in-service delivery was the lecture method, followed by group discussions. Simulations, case studies, and role play were very sparingly used. However, because of its limitations, the lecture method needs to be complemented by more discursive and reflexive methods.

Incentives and Rewards

The majority of the headteachers, 38 (77.6%), indicated that no rewards and incentives were used to encourage headteacher participation in in-service activities. There was thus a need for such incentives and rewards for those headteachers who partake in in-service education.

Facilitators

Headteachers expressed concern about the calibre of the facilitators. Only 26 (52%) headteachers indicated that the facilitators were doing a good job. However, when one considers that 22 (44%) headteachers had mixed feelings, 4% were dissatisfied, and 38% suggested the hiring of competent facilitators to deliver in-service courses, the impression one gets is that headteachers were far from being satisfied with the quality of in-service delivery.

Evaluation

Thirty-nine (78%) headteachers indicated that evaluation took place at the end of the in-service activity. They also felt that the emphasis should be on impact evaluation rather than on summative evaluation. Furthermore, headteachers felt very strongly that suggestions made during the evaluation exercise were not being taken seriously; hence the recurrence in subsequent courses of weaknesses previously cited in evaluation reports.

Suggestions for Improving In-Service Education

The headteachers made a number of suggestions that they felt were vital for the improvement of in-service education. The suggestions included:

1. greater collaboration between the in-service leaders and headteachers in identifying the headteachers' in-service needs,
2. the hiring of competent and credible facilitators,
3. the use of appropriate and varied methods of in-service delivery,
4. the institutionalization of a system of rewards and incentives for those who take part in in-service activities,
5. the designing of in-service activities that are sustained over a long period,
6. the utilization of suggestions made in evaluation reports,
7. the use of appropriate venues, and
8. the substantive appointment of acting headteachers.

These findings and the conclusions drawn from them provide powerful springboards for transforming the organization and conduct of in-service courses in

Harare Region. The conclusions derived from these findings and their implications are the substance of Chapter 5.

Chapter 5

Summary, Conclusions, and Implications

This chapter presents an overview of the study, a synopsis of the research design and methodology, a summary of the major findings and conclusions, and the implications of the study for practice and research. The chapter ends with a conclusion to the whole study.

Summary of the Study

The problem. The problem investigated in this study concerned what needs to be done to improve the effectiveness of in-service education for headteachers of government secondary schools in Harare region.

To accomplish this goal, information was sought on the following subquestions:

1. Are headteachers of government secondary schools in Harare Region involved in the assessment of their in-service needs?
2. Does the content of in-service courses reflect the in-service needs of the headteachers?
3. What methodologies are used to deliver in-service courses for headteachers?
4. What incentives are used to encourage headteachers to partake in in-service education?
5. How satisfied are the headteachers with the competence of the facilitators who deliver their in-service education?
6. When are in-service education courses evaluated?
7. What can be done to make in-service education courses for headteachers more effective?

Significance of the study. Headteachers play a key role in determining school success. According to Ubben and Hughes (1992), headteachers are responsible for crafting a compelling vision for their school; developing a mission statement in cooperation with the staff, community, and students; designing, implementing, and supervising the curriculum; providing for an ongoing evaluation of the schools' progress towards the desired goals; and staff recruitment and deployment. Headteachers are further responsible for the development and implementation of budgets as well as ensuring that a system of communication within and outside the school is in place. Ultimately, headteachers are responsible for the entire operation of the school. Because of the centrality of the headteachers' role in school effectiveness, it is essential that they be equipped with the requisite knowledge and attitudes as well as with a highly honed set of skills that enable them to perform their duties better. In-service education is one of the strategies that have been used over the years for enhancing the headteachers' job performance. This study is therefore significant in that it sheds some light on current in-service practices involving headteachers of government secondary schools in Harare Region.

More specifically, it explores strategies that can be adopted for improving the effectiveness of in-service education for headteachers.

Furthermore, the findings should provoke some introspection amongst the providers of in-service education which may lead to some improvement in the quality of in-service education.

Similarly, the information generated by this study should provide some feedback on the headteachers' perceptions of current in-service practices, and it is hoped that some necessary changes and improvements will ensue.

Finally, the data from this study should provide a basis for decision making with regards to the viability and continuation of the in-service programs particularly at this time when the Ministry of Education and Culture is striving to improve the quality of school administration. The data may be useful for soliciting more resources with a view to mounting well-planned in-service programs for headteachers that are sustainable over a long period.

Research design and methodology. To accomplish the purpose of this study, the descriptive survey research methodology was used, and data were collected through a questionnaire.

Two parts comprised the questionnaire: Part I dealt with the headteachers' personal data such as their qualifications, status, gender, age, and situational characteristics. Part II focused on the in-service courses that the headteachers had attended. The greater part of Part II was taken up by task statements which reflected the tasks that headteachers perform. These task statements covered the following areas of the headteachers' responsibility: curriculum and instruction, staff personnel function, pupil personnel function, resource management, systemwide policies and operations, and school-community interface. Headteachers rated the importance of each task as reflected in the task statement and their ability to perform the task on a Likert-type scale of 1 (low) to 5 (high). On the basis of the headteachers' ratings, the 78 task statements were distributed among the four quadrants of the Quadrant Assessment Model (Sanders, 1980). Those task statements assigned to Quadrant 2 had direct relevance to this study because they had implications for in-service education. The data were analyzed using descriptive statistics.

Summary of Major Findings

Needs assessment. The majority of the headteachers, 42 (84%), indicated that they had not been involved in the needs assessment for the courses that they had attended. In addition, 66% of the headteachers suggested, in response to an open-ended item, that they should be consulted about their in-service needs.

Content of courses. Nineteen (43.2%) headteachers felt that the content of the in-service courses that they had attended did not address their in-service needs. When this percentage is combined with 34% of headteachers who had mixed feelings about the relevance of courses, the impression that is created is that the content of the in-service courses is not correctly focused.

Methods of in-service delivery. Forty-one (82%) headteachers identified the lecture method as being the most widely used strategy for in-service delivery, followed by group discussions. More innovative, challenging, and reality-oriented methods such as simulations, role play, and case studies were sparingly used.

Incentives and rewards. Most of the headteachers, 38 (77.6%), indicated that no incentives or rewards were used to encourage and reward those who take part in in-service education.

Facilitators. The headteachers expressed concern about the calibre of the facilitators: 44% of the headteachers had mixed feelings, whereas 4% were dissatisfied; and 38% suggested that competent and credible facilitators should be hired. Fifty-two percent indicated that they were satisfied with the level of competency of the facilitators.

Evaluation. Thirty-nine (78%) headteachers indicated that summative evaluation was the most widely used form of evaluation. Very little formative and impact evaluation took place.

Suggestions for improving in-service education. The headteachers made the following suggestions for improving the effectiveness of in-service education:

1. There should be greater involvement of headteachers in needs assessment.
2. Competent facilitators should be hired.
3. Appropriate and innovative methods for in-service delivery should be used.
4. There is a need for incentives and rewards for those who partake in in-service activities.
5. In-service education should be treated as a process that is sustained over a long period, rather than as a discrete event.
6. Suggestions made during course evaluation should be utilized.

7. More congenial venues for courses should be selected.
8. There should be substantive appointment of acting headteachers.

Conclusions

The following generalizations summarize the conclusions reached in this study:

1. Headteachers should be involved in needs assessment for the in-service activities that aim at improving their job performance. This ensures that course content focuses on the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that are central to effective administrative practice. Miklos (1983) asserted that "in-service activities should be oriented toward the development of skills associated with the more immediate demands of the position" (p. 170). It is only by involving headteachers in needs assessment that a set of relevant experiences that will contribute to proficiency in administrative practice can be established.

2. Methods for in-service delivery should be varied, innovative, and appropriate, depending on the skills and attitudes to be developed or sharpened and the knowledge that the headteachers are expected to acquire. Innovative approaches—among which are simulations, case studies, role play, field visits, attachments, and internship—make in-service activities more lively and narrow the practice-theory gap. Joyce and Showers (1980), Miklos (1983), Orlich (1989), and Lunenburg and Ornstein (1991) stressed the critical importance of using innovative and appropriate methods for in-service delivery to obviate a situation in which the lecture method is used ad nauseam.

3. The success of in-service education depends very largely on the competence of the facilitators. Consequently, only those facilitators with the academic wherewithal and the relevant experience in what headship entails should be involved in the organization and conduct of in-service activities. Haydn-Jones (1986), the World Bank (1990), Kinder and Harland (1991), and Dadey and Harber (1991)

maintained that if in-service education activities were to be successful, they should be led by credible, knowledgeable, and skilled individuals. If the in-service leaders lack the requisite knowledge and skills, training becomes necessary. Alternatively, experienced headteachers can be used as facilitators. Because of their training and experience, headteachers provide a bridge between administrative theory and the practice of administration. They are more likely to be more cognizant of and proficient in providing learning opportunities and experiences which engage their peers in actively constructing their own understandings from the information available and enable them to move beyond assimilation of facts to integration of the information.

4. Evaluation of programs should be treated as an important component of the in-service package. Wherever possible, all these forms of evaluation—formative, summative, and impact—should be used because all of them yield information that is critical to the success of in-service activities. Suggestions made during the evaluation of in-service activities should be taken seriously. Gleave (1983), Boulanger and Marvin (1984), Verma (1984), Orlich (1989), and Seyfarth (1991) argued that, because evaluation is a process of obtaining, delineating, and providing information useful for both improving the day-to-day functioning of a program and judging its worth, it must not be carried out as an afterthought with little or no advance planning. To do so and to neglect the use of the data yielded by the evaluation process will lead to unmitigated failure. Course participants whose suggestions are never implemented tend to regard the evaluation of in-service activities as a ritual through which they are required to go. This attitude compromises the quality of the feedback that the in-service leaders get.

5. A well-articulated system of rewards and incentives should be institutionalized to motivate and give recognition to those who partake in in-service education. The incentives should go beyond the intrinsic rewards of superior

craftsmanship. Small (1982), Ikonne (1985), Orlich (1989), Fitch and Kopp (1990), and Kinder and Harland (1991) recognized the need for rewards and incentives when organizing and conducting in-service activities. These rewards can be monetary or nonmonetary, as long as they serve the function of recognizing and celebrating participation in in-service education. Moreover, although there may be occasions justifying the use of coercion to ensure attendance at in-service meetings, this approach alienates headteachers, who, more often than not, become cynical and disdainful about in-service education.

6. The appointment of acting headteachers to substantive positions enhances the effectiveness of in-service education because, with security of tenure, such headteachers are more likely to attend in-service activities and to experiment with new ideas. As stakeholders, the success of their schools becomes their mission.

7. Subject to budgetary considerations, in-service activities should take place at congenial venues "befitting the office of the headteacher," to quote one headteacher.

Implications of the Study

The findings of this research and the conclusions reached have implications for the organization and conduct of in-service education for headteachers of secondary schools in Harare Region.

First and foremost, one of the implications of this study is that, despite the problems that often bedevil in-service education, it still holds much promise as a strategy for equipping headteachers with new knowledge, skills, and attitudes that enhance their efficiency and effectiveness as practitioners. Efficient and effective headteachers rarely come ready made. As Fitch and Kopp (1990) intimated, "Personnel need training and assistance to become the best they can be. . . . Societal changes are on-going and staff development is one of the proven means to provide professionals with planned programs and training to improve performance" (p. vii).

The necessity for in-service education becomes compelling in settings in which there is no formal preservice training for potential school administrators. Headteachers can acquire the requisite knowledge, skills, and attitudes only through hands-on experience and in-service education. Thus properly planned and organized in-service education provides an effective strategy for meeting the new demands imposed on craftsmanship by incessant changes that characterize the field of education. That the headteachers of secondary schools in Harare Region indicated that they performed well 47 of the 78 tasks without any preservice education was a vindication of the efficacy of in-service education as a tool for competency development.

However, for the full potential of in-service education for headteachers to be realized, it is imperative that there be a shift in the fundamental philosophy underpinning the current practice of in-service education. Emphasis should shift from regarding in-service education as a strategy for remediating inadequacies that headteachers are alleged to have to conceptualizing in-service education as a necessary means for providing professional and personal growth. The "Fix-It" or "Deficit" model, although it has its legitimate place in headteacher development, should gradually be replaced by the "Growth" model. The former approach is based on reactive visions rather than on proactive visions which provide the premises for the latter.

Another implication emanating from the study is that effective in-service education is needs driven. According to Bishop (1976), "The best catalyst for staff development is a relevant, need-oriented, well-conceived, and organized, instructional improvement program" (p. 2). Thus determination of training needs is a central issue in the management of in-service activities because course content and delivery methods and strategies all depend on it. To ensure that in-service education is relevant and demand led, headteachers should be involved in needs assessment. Further, this will ensure that in-service activities address the right area of skill requirement, thereby enhancing the professional adequacy of the headteachers. UNESCO (1992) warned that training programs based on frivolous approaches to needs identification end up being a waste of time and resources for the individual trainees and their organization. It behoves the in-service leaders to ensure that needs assessment is done collaboratively with the headteachers and that identified needs have a program response. Headteacher participation in needs assessment for their in-service education minimizes alienation and reduces the threat involved when new ideas are unilaterally introduced by superordinates.

This study also has implications for the methodologies used for in-service delivery. In-service organizers should place emphasis on those methods that accomplish the goals and objectives of in-service education. Joyce and Showers (1980), Orlich (1989), and Lunenburg and Ornstein (1991) recommended the meshing of delivery methods with the in-service objectives. Traditional methods such as lectures are not enough on their own. They need to be complemented by more innovative methods such as simulation, case studies, role play, field trips, attachments, and internship which narrow the gap between administrative theory and practice. Such methods give the headteachers opportunities to make decisions and to undergo structured experiences similar to what they confront in their daily work-place operations. Using a variety of methods for in-service delivery further increases the chances for motivating the participants and for holding their attention. It also gives the participants an opportunity to reflect on practice as they work out solutions to the knotty problems of professional practice.

In addition, in-service organizers should be cognizant of the fact that the success of in-service education depends, inter alia, on the calibre of the facilitators. Facilitators charged with the responsibility of delivering in-service programs should have impeccable academic credentials backed up by a high degree of practical experience. Such facilitators should be adept at cooperative interaction with the headteachers. In situations in which there is a paucity of qualified and experienced facilitators, consideration should be given to the possibility of tapping the talent that abounds in the headteachers. As Fitch and Kopp (1990) put it, "The most powerful form of learning and the most sophisticated form of staff development comes not from listening to the 'good words' of presenters, but from sharing what we know with others" (p. 23).

Furthermore, the design and delivery of in-service education should go hand in hand with the implementation of successful strategies for positively rewarding headteachers who indulge in in-service activities with a view to enhancing their professional adequacy. Small (1982) and Miklos (1983) argued that a means must be devised to reward practitioners beyond the natural satisfaction accruing from enhanced craft knowledge. Such rewards and incentives can either be monetary or nonmonetary, as long as they are awarded in recognition and celebration of participation in in-service education. Between them, Small and Ikonne (1985) suggested career enhancement, release time for in-service activities, making attendance at in-service activities part of the headteachers' contractual obligation, awarding of certificates, and salary adjustment as some of the incentives and rewards that can be used to enhance the effectiveness of in-service education. It may also be prudent for consideration to be given to the accumulation of graduate units. This would require close consultation with the universities.

This research has further demonstrated that evaluation of in-service education activities should be taken seriously and, wherever possible, both formative and summative evaluation should be used. Evaluation allows programmatic strengths and weaknesses to be established and the necessary modifications and improvements to be effected. The neglect of evaluation has been the bane of many well-intentioned in-service activities. Not only should the in-service activities be evaluated, but the suggestions made during evaluation also deserve serious consideration. Orlich (1989) advised that for staff developers to achieve and maintain high-quality programs, they must collect trustworthy information and immediate feedback without which program improvement becomes difficult, if not impossible. Headteachers, like any participants, revere evaluation if their suggestions and recommendations are implemented.

In addition to taking evaluation seriously, the providers of in-service education should appreciate that the professional growth and renewal of school administrators takes time. Consequently, their in-service education must be planned as a sustained package of activities rather than as discrete events. As Verma (1984) pointed out, one-shot in-service activities achieve very little, if anything. According to Seller (1987), this is because these activities, more often than not, are isolated in nature and are not part of any apparent ongoing plan. To make matters worse, one-shot activities address different and unrelated issues, thus lending credence to the view that such activities tend to be disjointed and lacking in direction and inspiration.

Finally, one of the most important implications of this study is the need for the establishment of in-service centers for educators. This can be done through the designation of existing educational institutions as in-service education centers. The current practice in Harare Region, indeed, in Zimbabwe, of using hotels and Public Service Training Centres for in-service purposes is unsatisfactory. These venues are not always available when needed; hence the ad hocracy that characterizes in-service provision in Zimbabwe. Hotels tend to be burdensome to the fiscus, and some of the money used to pay hotel bills could be more profitably used for the development and publication of resource materials. Moreover, in-service delivery has become a highly technological activity. Not many hotels would have the kind of equipment necessary for effective in-service delivery. Dadey and Harber (1991) identified the shortage of staff-development institutes as one of the major impediments hindering the successful implementation of headteacher in-service programs. Admittedly, the establishment of such institutes has policy implications in terms of the goals of in-service education, the institutional locus of the in-service education programs, personnel requirements, the responsibilities of the various personnel, and resource mobilization. A clearly enunciated policy embracing these issues would go a long way toward facilitating the delivery of in-service education.

Suggestions for Further Research

1. In order to improve the overall understanding of in-service education for school administrators, researchers in future need to move away from descriptive surveys to case studies and longitudinal studies. These approaches have the potential for shedding more light on the possible long-term effects of administrators in-service on the knowledge, attitudes, and skills demonstrated by practitioners.

2. Researches on administrator in-service, such as this one, depend very heavily on questionnaires as the primary data-collection device. Daresh and Playko (1992) argued that this has led to the belief that research on school administrator in-service education is about finding out more and more about less and less. It is therefore desirable for future studies to employ on-site, naturalistic research techniques to determine what really goes on during the course of typical in-service training sessions. Recourse to ethnographic data-collection methods may lead to the generation of more knowledge about administrator in-service.

3. This research, like most studies on administrator in-service education, was directed toward problem solving. It was not related to any identifiable theory base. There is a need for a stronger conceptual footing that involves a shift away from approaches to research that are almost exclusively directed at solving problems in the here and now toward investigations that might challenge much wider assumptions about the nature of effective in-service, adult learning, and administrative development in general. Aspects of in-service education such as the delivery and

presentation of content and the impact of such delivery and presentation on the extant knowledge, skills, or attitudes of administrators have to be explored in greater detail. Thus future studies should have a theory-testing or theory-building orientation.

4. Harare Region is largely urban and has a core of experienced headteachers. It would be rewarding to compare the perception of in-service education by headteachers in Harare Region with the perception of headteachers from largely rural and remote regions. The results should assist in-service leaders in designing in-service packages that are tailor made to the peculiarities of each region.

In future, therefore, researchers need to revisit the research methodology, data-collection procedures, research orientation, and research objectives when undertaking studies on headteacher in-service education.

Conclusion

The literature review and the findings of this study reveal that despite such shortcomings as the inadequate assessment of genuine problems that are bothersome to the headteachers, suspect technologies of delivery, the absence of a well-thought-out system of rewards and incentives for those who partake in in-service education, and the neglect of suggestions made during course evaluation, in-service education remains a very potent strategy for competency building and for fine-tuning existing competencies because of what Schlecty and Whitford (1983) described as its establishment, enhancement, and maintenance functions.

To enhance the efficacy of in-service education for headteachers, more attention needs to be paid to the involvement of headteachers in the planning, implementation, and evaluation of in-service activities. Headteacher involvement in deciding the goals, delivery techniques and other aspects of the design of in-service programs, and a process conceptualization of in-service education would facilitate the realization of the major purpose of in-service education, which is "to help raise the level of the principals' professional performance in the areas of instruction and educational leadership" (Falkenberg & Loewen, 1986, p. 70).

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Appendix A

Research Permit from the Ministry of Education and Culture

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE
P.O. Box 8022
Causeway, Zimbabwe

18 February 1993

Mr. R. Sisimayi
1601 Galbraith House
Michener Park
Edmonton, Alberta
Canada
T6H 5B5

Request for Permission and Support to Undertake a
Thesis Research in Zimbabwe: June - August 1993

I refer to your recent application letter dated January 25, 1993, concerning the above. Permission is hereby granted for you to undertake your research in Zimbabwe.

However, as your research methodology requires the completion of questionnaires complemented by interviews with selected Heads in Harare Region, we would ask you to approach the Regional Director of Harare Region with this letter before you approach your selected Heads. It may be useful for you to discuss your research project with the Regional Director, his Deputy or other Education Officers in Harare Region.

Finally, the Ministry of Education and Culture wishes you well in your research and would be very grateful for a copy of your completed research document. This may probably contain some information useful to the development of education in Zimbabwe.

J. G. Mugadzaweta
for SECRETARY FOR EDUCATION AND CULTURE

Appendix B

Letter of Transmittal

Department of Educational Administration
Faculty of Education

May 20, 1993

The Headteacher
____
____
____

Dear Colleague:

Re: Research on In-Service Education for Headteachers

I am a student at the University of Alberta, Canada, doing a Master's degree in Educational Administration. In partial fulfillment of the requirements of the M.Ed. program, I am required to undertake some research. My area of interest is "In-Service Education for Secondary School Headteachers." This research is concerned specifically with what needs to be done to improve the effectiveness of in-service programs for secondary school headteachers. The results of this study will help officials in Harare Region and the Ministry of Education and Culture in designing and conducting in-service programs that address the needs of headteachers.

I am particularly interested in obtaining your responses because of your invaluable experience as an administrator and because of the central role that headteachers play in creating a safe and orderly school environment that facilitates the teaching-learning process. It is therefore essential that in-service programs that aim at competency development by demand-led. Your frankness and honesty in responding to the items in the enclosed instrument will go a long way in facilitating the designing of strategies for enhancing the effectiveness of in-service programs. Your anonymity and the confidentiality of your responses will be respected.

Please be advised that this research has been approved by the Ministry of Education and Culture and the Regional Director of Harare Region.

I would be very grateful if you could complete the enclosed instrument by June 25, 1993, and return it to me using the stamped, self-addressed envelope provided.

I would like to thank you most sincerely for your assistance in expediting this survey research.

Yours sincerely,

R. G. Sisimayi

K. Ward, Ph.D.
(Professor and Advisor)

M. B. M'Kumbuzi
(Regional Director,
Harare Region)

Encl.

Appendix C

First Letter of Appeal

90 George Road
Hatfield
Harare, Zimbabwe

29 June 1993

The Headteacher
____
____
____

Dear Colleague:

Re: Return of Questionnaire on In-Service Education for Headteachers

This letter is a follow-up to the questionnaire that you received on May 28, 1993.

As the success of the research I am undertaking depends on a high rate of return of the questionnaire, I would be very grateful if you could find some time in your busy schedule to complete the questionnaire and send it back to me by July 10, 1993.

If you have already sent in your questionnaire, please ignore this letter of appeal.

Once again, may I take this opportunity to thank you most sincerely for your cooperation in expediting this research.

Yours sincerely,

R. G. Sisimayi

Appendix D

Second Letter of Appeal

90 George Road
Hatfield
Harare, Zimbabwe

12 July 1993

The Headteacher
____
____
____

Dear Colleague:

To date I have not yet received your completed questionnaire on the in-service programs for headteachers.

As time is running out for me, I shall be most grateful if you could complete the enclosed questionnaire and send it back to me using the stamped, self-addressed envelope provided.

I wish to thank you most sincerely for finding some time in your busy schedule to complete the questionnaire. If it suits your convenience, please let me have your questionnaire by July 24, 1993.

Yours sincerely,

R. G. Sisimayi

Appendix E

The Questionnaire

NUMBER: ☐

IN-SERVICE EDUCATION FOR
HEADTEACHERS OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS
IN HARARE REGION, ZIMBABWE

A SURVEY RESEARCH

This is a survey research to determine what needs to be done to make in-service programs for headteachers of secondary schools in Harare Region more effective. The instrument comprises two parts:

PART I: which deals with personal data, and

PART II: which deals with the in-service programs you may have attended.

GENERAL INSTRUCTION

1. Please answer all questions.
2. Do not write your name on this instrument.
3. On completion, please return this instrument to me using the stamped and self-addressed envelope provided.
4. Please be assured that your anonymity and the confidentiality of your responses will be respected.
5. The purpose of the number in the box at the top is to keep track of the return of the questionnaires. The number will be obliterated on receipt of the questionnaire to ensure that responses are not traceable to respondents.

Your willingness to take part in this survey is greatly appreciated.

PART I: PERSONAL DATA

THIS SECTION REQUESTS INFORMATION ABOUT YOURSELF AND YOUR WORK SITUATION. PLEASE PLACE A CHECK MARK (✓) ON THE APPROPRIATE RESPONSE IN THE SPACES PROVIDED.

1. What is your level of education?
    1. ____ STC
    2. ____ TI
    3. ____ Bachelor's degree and a teaching certificate
    4. ____ Master's degree
    5. ____ Ph.D.

2. What is your status?
    1. ____ Substantive headteacher
    2. ____ Acting headteacher

3. Your gender:
    1. ____ Female
    2. ____ Male

4. Your age category:
    1. ____ Under 30 years
    2. ____ 30-39 years
    3. ____ 40-49 years
    4. ____ 50-59 years
    5. ____ 60 years and over

5. What type of school do you head?
    1. ____ Day
    2. ____ Boarding
    3. ____ Day and boarding

6. To which category does your school belong?
    1. ____ Former Group A
    2. ____ Former Group B

7. Is your school:
    1. ____ Government?
    2. ____ Non-government?

8. How long have you been a headteacher or acting headteacher?
    1. ____ 1-4 years
    2. ____ 5-9 years
    3. ____ 10 years
    4. ____ Over 10 years

PART II: IN-SERVICE EDUCATION PROGRAMS

SECTION I

THIS PART OF THE INSTRUMENT DEALS WITH THE GENERAL ASPECTS OF THE IN-SERVICE COURSES OR WORKSHOPS ORGANIZED BY YOUR REGION. PLEASE PLACE A CHECK MARK (✓) AGAINST YOUR RESPONSE.

9. Have you ever attended in-service courses or workshops organized by your region?
   1. ____ Yes
   2. ____ No

10. If yes, what would you say was the average duration of a course or workshop?
    1. ____ 1-2 days
    2. ____ 3-4 days
    3. ____ 4-5 days
    4. ____ Over 5 days

11. What is your overall impression of the duration of the in-service courses or workshops?
    1. ____ Long enough
    2. ____ Too long
    3. ____ Short
    4. ____ Too short
    5. ____ No opinion

12. When do you think is the most ideal time for in-service courses and workshops?
    1. ____ During school time
    2. ____ During school vacation
    3. ____ During weekends
    4. ____ No preference

13. Were you involved in preworkshop/course needs assessment for the courses or workshops you attended?
    1. ____ Yes
    2. ____ No

SECTION II: NEEDS ASSESSMENT

BELOW IS A LIST OF A NUMBER OF TASKS WHICH A SECONDARY SCHOOL HEADTEACHER MAY PERFORM. YOU ARE KINDLY REQUESTED TO INDICATE WITH A CIRCLE, UNDER THE HEADING IMPORTANCE OF THE TASK FOR THE HEADTEACHER, HOW IMPORTANT THAT TASK IS TO YOU; AND UNDER THE HEADING CURRENT ABILITY OF THE HEADTEACHER TO PERFORM THE TASK, HOW WELL YOU PERFORM THE TASK. A 5-POINT SCALE FROM 1 (LOW) TO 5 (HIGH) IS PROVIDED UNDER EACH HEADING TO FACILITATE RATING. THIS MEANS THAT YOU RATE EACH TASK TWICE. THE TASKS ARE DIVIDED INTO THE FOLLOWING CATEGORIES:

Curriculum and Instruction
Staff Personnel Functions
Pupil Personnel Functions
Resource Management
Systemwide Policies and Operations
School-Community Interface

CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION

		Importance of task for headteacher	Current ability of headteacher to perform task
		Low High	Low High
	Task Statement	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
CI 1	Takes into account student interest when designing the school curriculum.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
CI 2	Establishes subject departments to facilitate curriculum delivery.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
CI 3	Works with teachers in assessing the effectiveness of teaching methods.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
CI 4	Plans a program, including a timetable, which best matches time, space, staff, students, and subject matter.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
CI 5	Designs a curriculum which meets individual learner needs.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
CI 6	Facilitates instructional approaches which complement classroom teaching; for example, field trips, student exchanges, educational tours.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
CI 7	Works with teachers to establish criteria for student assessment.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
CI 8	Involves parents, teachers, and students in planning the educational programs for the school.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
CI 9	Solicits suggestions from teachers when designing the curriculum.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
CI 10	Assesses curriculum effectiveness.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
CI 11	Works with teachers and students to establish a good school climate.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

STAFF PERSONNEL FUNCTIONS

		Importance of task for headteacher	Current ability of headteacher to perform task
		Low High	Low High
	Task Statement	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
SP 12	Assigns decision-making tasks to staff in keeping with their interests, expertise, and organizational responsibility.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
SP 13	Observes teachers in classrooms to assist in evaluating teaching practices.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
SP 14	Encourages staff to recognize and commend worthwhile accomplishments of students.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
SP 15	Facilitates teacher access to students' records.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
SP 16	Establishes a system for training teachers in the use of a variety of media; for example, audio-visual equipment, library resources.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
SP 17	Establishes procedures for staff participation in decision-making concerning school policies.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
SP 18	Interprets policies, regulations, procedures, and priorities to staff.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
SP 19	Assists teachers in developing effective practices for achieving instructional goals.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
SP 20	Plans professional development activities for self and others on the basis of an assessment of needs.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
SP 21	Communicates to staff the importance of professionalism and development as a professional.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
SP 22	Plans and maintains a system of communication with staff.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
SP 23	Plans and conducts staff meetings.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
SP 24	Develops a schedule for supervision of student work.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
SP 25	Recognizes and commends worthwhile accomplishments of staff.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
SP 26	Provides personal and career counselling for staff.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

Task Statement		Importance of task for headteacher Low High					Current ability of headteacher to perform task Low High				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
SP 27	Provides for orientation of new staff.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
SP 28	Establishes and maintains good working relationships with and among staff.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

PUPIL PERSONNEL FUNCTIONS

Task Statement		Importance of task for headteacher Low High					Current ability of headteacher to perform task Low High				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
PP 29	Establishes procedures for interpreting the evaluation of students to parents and teachers.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
PP 30	Establishes priorities among student problems needing solution.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
PP 31	Evaluates co-curricular activities.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
PP 32	Schedules times to be available for informal interaction with parents.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
PP 33	Plans and organizes a guidance and counselling program for students.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
PP 34	Collects follow-up information on former students to improve services provided by the school.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
PP 35	Implements a system to achieve regular attendance by students.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
PP 36	Evaluates the effectiveness of student personnel services.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
PP 37	Supports co-curricular programs by active participation and attendance.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
PP 38	Maintains student records.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

Task Statement		Importance of task for headteacher Low High 1 2 3 4 5	Current ability of headteacher to perform task Low High 1 2 3 4 5
PP 39	Makes available to students occupational and educational information derived from community and professional resources.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PP 40	Recognizes outstanding student achievement.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PP 41	Plans orientation meetings for new students and their parents.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PP 42	Takes action on discipline matters requiring his/her attention.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PP 43	Involves students in school affairs.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PP 44	Works with teachers to establish a comprehensive student-activity program.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PP 45	Establishes a system for communication with students.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PP 46	Establishes criteria for placement of students in school programs.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PP 47	Establishes policies and procedures for student discipline.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PP 48	Enrolls students.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

		Importance of task for headteacher Low High	Current ability of headteacher to perform task Low High
	Task Statement	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
RM 49	Prepares statements and reports required by supervisors.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
RM 50	Projects staff needs.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
RM 51	Makes recommendations for the improvement of physical facilities.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
RM 52	Makes decisions about instructional materials and equipment subject to the constraints of the budget.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
RM 53	Prepares a budget in accordance with the policies regulations, and procedures of the Ministry of Education and Culture.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
RM 54	Purchases services and materials in accordance with the policies, regulations, and procedures of the Ministry of Education and Culture.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
RM 55	Provides information for financial audits.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
RM 56	Uses budgetary guidelines to structure school activities.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
RM 57	Administers the school budget in accordance with the policies, regulations, and procedures of the Ministry of Education and Culture.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
RM 58	Maintains a bookkeeping and accounting system in accordance with the policies, regulations, and procedures of the Ministry.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
RM 59	Establishes procedures for acquiring and managing school-generated funds.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
RM 60	Establishes procedures for the collection and utilization of fees in accordance with the policies, regulations, and procedures of the Ministry of Education and Culture.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
RM 61	Maintains inventories (registers) of resources.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

SYSTEMWIDE POLICIES AND OPERATIONS

		Importance of task for headteacher					Current ability of headteacher to perform task				
		Low				High	Low				High
Task Statement		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
PO 62	Organizes school staff to accomplish school goals.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
PO 63	Ensures that school goals and objectives are consistent with the goals of the Ministry of Education and Culture.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
PO 64	Utilizes the Ministry's recommendations in revising educational plans.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
PO 65	Recommends staff for appointment as officers and for purposes of promotion or dismissal.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
PO 66	Provides information requested by supervisors and/or researchers.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
PO 67	Clarifies decision-making responsibilities for subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
PO 68	Utilizes services of subject specialists.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
PO 69	Implements the Ministry's policies affecting the school.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
PO 70	Identifies procedures for monitoring and controlling school visitors.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
PO 71	Provides for health, welfare, and safety of students and staff.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

SCHOOL-COMMUNITY INTERFACE

		Importance of task for headteacher					Current ability of headteacher to perform task				
		Low				High	Low				High
Task Statement		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
SC 72	Develops communications channels with parents and the community.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
SC 73	Promotes positive school image in the community.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
SC 74	Utilizes community input in school decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
SC 75	Facilitates adult-education programs.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
SC 76	Administers community use of school buildings and facilities.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
SC 77	Utilizes community resources in the school programs.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
SC 78	Conveys community expectations to staff.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION III

PLEASE USE A CHECK MARK (✓) TO INDICATE YOUR RESPONSE.

79. Have the tasks you have rated as being important, but you are NOT performing well, been covered in the in-service courses/workshops you have attended?

1. ____ Not covered
2. ____ Not well covered
3. ____ Mixed feelings
4. ____ Covered
5. ____ Well covered

80. Indicate with a circle how frequently each of the following methods was used to deliver the in-service programs you have attended.

		Always	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Never
		5	4	3	2	1
1.	Formal lectures	5	4	3	2	1
2.	Group discussions	5	4	3	2	1
3.	Role playing	5	4	3	2	1
4.	Simulation	5	4	3	2	1
5.	Case study (including films and videos)	5	4	3	2	1
6.	____ Others (specify) ____________	5	4	3	2	1

81. How satisfied are you with the facilitators responsible for the delivery of the in-service programs in which you have been involved?
    1. ____ Very dissatisfied
    2. ____ Dissatisfied
    3. ____ Mixed feelings
    4. ____ Satisfied
    5. ____ Very satisfied

82. When are the in-service activities usually evaluated?
    1. ____ At the beginning
    2. ____ At the end of each session
    3. ____ At the end of the in-service course/workshop
    4. ____ When participants are back at their work places.
    5. ____ Other (specify) ____________________

83. Which of the following incentives are used to encourage headteachers to participate in in-service activities?
    1. ____ Programs or courses leading to additional qualifications
    2. ____ Financial rewards
    3. ____ Promotion
    4. ____ None
    5. ____ Others (specify) ____________________

84. How would you rate the success of the in-service programs you have attended in meeting your needs?
    1. ____ Unsuccessful
    2. ____ Not so successful
    3. ____ Mixed feelings
    4. ____ Successful
    5. ____ Very successful

85. In the boxes below, write three suggestions you consider critical for improving the effectiveness of in-service programs for headteachers.

    1.

    2.

3.

YOUR COOPERATION IN EXPEDITING THIS EXERCISE IS GREATLY APPRECIATED.

Please return your completed questionnaire by June 25th, 1993, using the self-addressed, stamped envelope provided, to:

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Hatfield
Harare
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